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ARTICLE VIII.

THE NORTHEASTERN BOUNDARY OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE attempt to compromise the long-agitated question of the Boundary Line between the State of Maine, and the provinces of New Brunswick and Canada, by a negotiation on a new basis, in which the governments of the States immediately interested are invited to become parties, having opened a prospect of an amicable adjustment of the matter in controversy, we take this opportunity of giving a brief review of the present state of question.

The state of Maine, which claims the right of jurisdiction and sovereignty over the territory in controversy, and the state of Massachusetts, of which Maine was formerly a part, and which in consequence is entitled, by the terms of separation, to a property of one undivided moiety in the said lands, have both maintained, that as the terms of the treaty of peace of 1783 are so explicit and intelligible as to leave no question of the validity of their claim to the territory, the national government has no right, without the express consent of the states thus interested, to make any cession to Great Britain, for the settlement of the matter in dispute, of any portion of the territory embraced within the limits defined in the treaty, according to their interpretation of it.

It is apparent that a portion of the territory in dispute would be a much less valuable possession to the state of Maine, than to the adjoining provinces of New Brunswick and Canada, as it forms a part of the line of direct communication between the two provinces, while it is detached and remote from the settled

parts of the state of Maine, and as it has no water communication with the ocean, except by passing through the province of New Brunswick. There is also another motive on the part of the British Government for wishing to retain it; namely, that it has been settled in part by people from the adjoining portions of the British provinces, who regard themselves as under British jurisdiction, and from whom that government, on that account, is unwilling to withdraw its protection. Under these circumstances, it has been supposed that it might be advantageous to both parties, to enter into a negotiation for the establishment of a new line of boundary, by either a mutual cession of territory, or a cession on one part, in consideration of a grant of privileges of navigation by the other, or of other advantages which may be regarded as an equivalent for the territory ceded. To admit of a negotiation on this principle, it was necessary to obtain the concurrence of the governments of the two states above named. The legislatures of those states have accordingly passed resolves authorizing such a negotiation in concert with the general government, by commissioners appointed for the purpose.

The legislatures of both states, in granting the authority for such a negotiation, assumed the ground of the unquestioned title of the United States, to all the territory claimed by them, under the treaty. Their respective commissioners will consequently hold themselves bound to demand in exchange for any of this territory which may be relinquished, some other territory, or privilege, which shall be regarded as a full equivalent. There is reason to apprehend, that the assertion of this claim may operate to the defeat of any successful negotiation. The individual states, however, are not regarded by Great Britain as parties to the negotiation, although their assent to the terms is a necessary preliminary, to any successful negotiation by the government of the United States. It is too late for the government of the United States to take the ground, that their claim does not admit of any doubt, however confidently they may argue the validity of the claim, because it has been repeatedly conceded to be matter in controversy requiring to be adjusted by negotiation, or arbitration. It must be admitted, also, that however strong and indisputable is the argument of the United States in support of their claim to the greater part of the territory in dispute, it is equally unquestionable, that as to the precise delineation of the boundary line, there is much to be settled; that on the border of Vermont there is a strip of territory under the actual jurisdiction of that state, which lies north of the true line of the 45th parallel of latitude, and is consequently not within the limits of that state, as defined by the treaty of 1783; that on the border of New

Hampshire there is a tract of territory claimed and occupied by that state, their title to which under the treaty is questionable; and that even in regard to the frontier of Maine, the authorities of that state have given an interpretation to the treaty, which is extremely questionable, and by which they claim a tract of some 400,000 acres, not very obviously embraced within the limits defined by that instrument. There is, therefore, the best reason, on the part of the United States, for entering into a negotiation of this question, on the basis of mutual cessions, and the grant of mutual equivalents, for the tracts so to be added.

By the astronomical observations which were made by direction of the commissioners under the treaty of Ghent, it was ascertained to the satisfaction of both commissioners, that the limit of the jurisdiction of the state of Vermont, as it has been possessed from the settlement of the state, extends from a half-mile to a mile north of the 45th parallel of latitude, and that the site of a fort at Rouse's Point, on which the government of the United States expended some \$200,000, is within the limits of Canada as defined by the treaty of 1783.

It was also ascertained, we believe, on investigation, that the principal branch of the Connecticut River north of the 45th degree of latitude has from time immemorial been known by the name of the Connecticut, as far as a lake which is known by the same name, and that the more westerly branches of the river have, during the same period, been known by other names. If this be true, there would seem to be room for doubt, whether the claim of the authorities of New Hampshire to have the branch called the *Indian Stream*, regarded as that branch of the Connecticut which is described by the treaty, is well founded. In the year 1835, the government of New Hampshire took possession of the small tract of territory situated between the main branch of the Connecticut and the Indian Stream, by military force. Since that time, the British claim to that territory has lain dormant, but the question of title has never been settled between the two governments, and it will probably be embraced in the negotiations on the present occasion.

But the principal question to be settled is to determine that part of the boundary line which intervenes between the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, now New Brunswick, and the northwesternmost head of Connecticut River. This question is in fact attended with less real difficulty than either of the other two, except that from the greater magnitude of the interest involved in it, a more resolute effort has been made to divert the attention of inquirers from the true points of the question. We do not propose to argue the question, but shall content ourselves with pre-

senting a brief statement of it, and of the authorities on which the decision must rest.

It must be understood, that from the cession of Canada to Great Britain, in 1763, to the breaking out of the American war, and the declaration of American Independence, the whole of the territories bordering upon the region now in dispute was divided between three provinces, owing allegiance to the crown of Great Britain. These provinces were Massachusetts Bay, then including what is now the State of Maine, the province of Nova Scotia, and the province of Quebec. There was no territory whatever, in those parts, belonging to Great Britain, or any other power, which was not included within the limits and jurisdiction of one or other of these three provinces.

The territories of Massachusetts Bay were held under the charter of William and Mary, granted in the year 1691, and were bounded by Nova Scotia on the east, and by Canada on the north, their precise limits being not very clearly defined, and having been from time to time subject to some dispute. But on the acquisition of Canada by Great Britain, all doubts were removed by authentic acts of the Crown, so clear and intelligible as to leave no room for dispute. By a proclamation of King George III., dated October 7, 1763, it was declared, that with the advice of the privy council, he had granted letters-patent, under the great seal, to erect four governments within the territories recently ceded. One of these was the government of Quebec, the boundary of which, on the south and east, was described in the following words: "*From whence the said line, crossing the River St. Lawrence, and the Lake Champlain in forty-five degrees of north latitude, passes along the highlands which divide the rivers that empty into the said River St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the sea; and also along the north coast of the Baye des Chaleurs, and the coast of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to Cape Rosieres.*" In the year 1774, this same boundary of the province of Quebec, was confirmed by the act of Parliament "for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec." In the first section of this act, the boundaries are defined, and in this description we find the following words: "*Bounded on the south by a line from the Bay of Chaleurs, along the highlands which divide the rivers that empty themselves into the River St. Lawrence from those which fall into the sea to a point in 45 degrees of north latitude.*" The language of these descriptions is in no respect doubtful or ambiguous. It was never supposed by any one to grant to the province of Quebec any territory south of the River Ristigouche, which falls into the Bay of Chaleurs, or to embrace any territory south or east of

the extreme sources of the River St. John, nor has the government of Canada, from that day to this, ever exercised or claimed any jurisdiction beyond these limits. These definitions of the southern boundary of the province of Quebec, of course, established the northern boundary of the province of Massachusetts Bay. This province had previously claimed an extension of territory to the shore of the St. Lawrence, and on this occasion the province protested against this narrowing of her limits, but her protest was without avail.

In the same year in which the boundaries of the province of Quebec were established, 1763, a royal commission was granted to Montague Wilmot, Esq., appointing him Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief over the province of Nova Scotia, and in his commission the limits of that province, on the north and west, are thus described, namely: "To the northward, our said province shall be bounded *by the southern boundary of our province of Québec, as far as the western extremity of the Bay des Chaleurs; to the eastward by the said bay and the Gulf of St. Lawrence;*" "and to the westward, although our said province hath anciently extended, and doth of right extend, as far as the River Pentagoet, or Penobscot, it shall be bounded by a line drawn from Cape Sable across the entrance of the Bay of Fundy, *to the mouth of the River St. Croix, by the said river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of our colony of Quebec.*" This description shows what was then established as the western boundary of Nova Scotia, although an extension farther west had been previously claimed, and it consequently shows what was, from that time, acknowledged to be the eastern limit of the province of Massachusetts Bay.

Lest it should be supposed that there might have been a change in these boundaries between the dates here stated and the signature of the treaty of peace in the year 1783, it may be proper to state, that on the 18th of September, 1777, Frederic Haldimand, Esq. was appointed Governor-in-Chief of the province of Quebec, and that in his commission of that date the boundaries of the province are described in part as follows: "Bounded on the south *by a line from the Bay of Chaleurs, along the highlands which divide the rivers that empty themselves into the River St. Lawrence from those which fall into the sea, to a point in 45 degrees of north latitude, on the eastern branch of the River Connecticut.*" Under this commission Mr. Haldimand remained in office until after the treaty of peace of 1783. So also at the date of the treaty of 1783, John Parr, Esq. was Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of the province of Nova Scotia under a commission, in which the boundaries of his government are described

in part as follows, namely : " Bounded on the westward by a line drawn from Cape Sable across the entrance of the Bay of Fundy, to the mouth of the River St. Croix, *by the said river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of our colony of Quebec, to the northward by said boundary, as far as the western extremity of the Bay of Chaleurs,*" &c.

These descriptions are so clear and specific as to defy doubt or misinterpretation. The southern boundary of Quebec was a continuous line of highlands from the Bay of Chaleurs to the head of Connecticut River, excluding from that colony every part of the territory watered by the River St. John. The western boundary of Nova Scotia, was the River St. Croix and a line running due north from the source of that river to the southern boundary of Quebec. All the territory south of the former of these two lines and west of the latter, of course belonged to Massachusetts Bay, as it is perfectly clear that it belonged neither to Quebec, nor to Nova Scotia, and there was no other party to claim it.

Such were the boundaries of these three provinces at the date of the Declaration of Independence, and also at the date of the treaty of peace in 1783, and in conformity with these boundaries was the actual possession and jurisdiction of the three governments, as they are shown by actual transcripts from the commissions of the governors of two of the three provinces. And what saith the treaty of peace, made between Great Britain on the one part, and the thirteen United States, of which Massachusetts Bay was one, on the other? By the first article of this treaty, his Britannic Majesty acknowledges the independence of the United States, including Massachusetts Bay, and in express terms "*relinquishes all claims to the government, property, and territorial rights of the same, and every part thereof.*" The provinces of Nova Scotia and Quebec not being among those which united in the declaration of independence, and in the treaty of peace, their territorial rights were of course not ceded to the United States, but the western and southern boundaries of these two provinces were declared to be the eastern and northern boundaries of the United States, and all possessions beyond these boundaries were relinquished to the United States.

But this is not all, nor the most material part of the treaty bearing upon this question. To remove all doubt in regard to the existing limits of the respective provinces, which it was proposed to confirm or perpetuate, the treaty goes on to define, in clearer language, if possible, than that which had been previously used in proclamations, acts of Parliament, and royal commissions, the limits of the territory "*relinquished*" to the United States, in

the words following, namely: "That all disputes which might arise in future, on the subject of the boundaries of the said United States, may be prevented, it is hereby agreed and declared, that the following are and shall be their boundaries, namely, *from the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, namely, that angle which is formed by a line due north from the source of St. Croix River to the highlands; along the said highlands which divide those rivers that empty themselves into the River St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, to the northwesternmost head of Connecticut River,*" &c.; and, after describing other parts of the boundary, "east by a line drawn along the middle of the River St. Croix, from its mouth in the Bay of Fundy to its source, and *from its source directly north to the aforesaid highlands, which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic Ocean from those which fall into the River St. Lawrence.*" It is apparent, that with some slight change of language in these clauses of the treaty, from that which is used in the documents before cited, there is no change of meaning. The same highlands must have been intended in the treaty, as are described in the proclamation and act of Parliament, unless we are to suppose that the treaty contained contradictory provisions in the same article.

It is a remarkable fact in the history of this controversy, that for a period of more than thirty years after the conclusion of this treaty, there never was the slightest doubt entertained by any one, that the meaning of this clause was precisely in conformity with the interpretation which we now give to it. Hundreds of maps had been drawn and published, and geographical descriptions written, both in Great Britain and in this country, from the date of the proclamation of 1763, to the publication of Col. Bouchette's topographical description of the province of Lower Canada, in 1815, and there is not to be found in one of them, as far as we have been able to ascertain the fact, the slightest intimation, that the highlands referred to in the treaty, as indicating the established boundary between the two countries, were other than those which are situated at the north and west of the head waters of the St. John. The author of the work above named, after describing the height of land from the source of Connecticut River to the northwest angle of New Brunswick, "on which," as he remarks, "the boundary is supposed to pass," describes a more southerly ridge, situated south of the St. John, which he says "ought more fairly to be understood" as the boundary, "thereby equitably dividing the waters flowing into the St. Lawrence from those which empty into the Atlantic, within the limits of the United States." For this opinion, which appears to be the first suggestion offered

to the public, that these highlands could be made to correspond with the description in the treaty, this author gives no reasons. Subsequent British writers adopted the suggestion, and have endeavored to convince the British public, that there are plausible grounds at least, for applying to these more southerly highlands the description in the treaty.

The commissioners appointed under the fifth article of the treaty of Ghent, to survey this part of the boundary, and to determine the position of the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, or New Brunswick,* described in the treaty, after having executed various other parts of their commission, began to survey the line running directly north from the monument, previously erected at the source of the St. Croix, towards the highlands. The running of this line was of course necessary for the designation of the northwest angle of New Brunswick; the point sought being the intersection of the line with the northern boundary of the province, or what is the same thing, with the southern boundary of the province of Quebec, or Lower Canada. The surveying party proceeded quietly and harmoniously until they reached a height of land called Mars Hill, situated about forty miles north from the monument, and about an equal distance from the point where the line, if continued, would cross the River St. John. Here, said the British commissioner, no doubt to the astonishment of his associates in the survey, are the highlands, which divide the waters falling into the St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, and here is to be established the northwest angle of Nova Scotia. It was in vain represented to him, that they had not reached the highlands, from which the waters on the north side thereof flow into the St. Lawrence, and that this meridian line, forming the westerly boundary line of New Brunswick, must yet be a long way extended, before it could meet the northern boundary, and thereby form the northwest angle. Here, notwithstanding, he persisted in establishing the northwest angle, and what is more surprising, the British Government so far ratified his proceeding, as to suspend the survey, and to demand the reference of the question to the arbitration of a friendly power, in conformity with the provisions of the treaty of Ghent.

The heights of Mars Hill do not answer the description of the highlands referred to in the treaty, in any one particular. Instead of dividing waters which flow into the St. Lawrence, from those which flow directly into the Atlantic, this height divides only

* The reader must recollect, that a part of the territory, which at the date of the treaty formed the province of Nova Scotia, is now New Brunswick, — what was then called the province of Quebec, is now Canada, and recently called Lower Canada, and what then formed a part of Massachusetts Bay, is now the state of Maine.

waters which flow through one channel into the St. John, from those which flow through another channel into the same river; for the meridian line from the monument, before reaching Mars Hill, crosses two branches of the St. John. It forms no part of the ridge of highlands, extending from the source of Connecticut River to the Bay of Chaleur, for the valley of the river St. John interposes directly between it and the Bay of Chaleur. It forms no part of the southern boundary of Quebec or Canada, for the government of Canada never extended its jurisdiction to any place within seventy miles of it. It forms no part of the "aforesaid highlands," meaning the highlands which form the northern boundary of New Brunswick, and consequently one side of the northwest angle, because the northern boundary of New Brunswick is well known to be sixty or seventy miles further north, though perhaps not precisely defined by any authentic act. The intervening country has been, from the date of the treaty to the present time, under the jurisdiction of New Brunswick; counties and parishes have been established there, by the provincial legislature of New Brunswick, and the inhabitants vote in the elections of New Brunswick, pay taxes into its treasury, and perform military duty under its officers. A part of New Brunswick north of Mars Hill, which has been thus occupied from the date of the treaty, extends along both branches of the St. John River for a distance of more than forty miles, and still further, to the highlands north of that river, in which the River Ristigouche has its source. These are the highlands extending from the source of the Connecticut River to the Bay of Chaleur. On their approach to this bay, they are intersected by the River Ristigouche and its branches, and it may perhaps be still made a question, which ridge of the highlands thus intersected, shall be taken as the highlands of the treaty. This was a question to be determined many years ago, for fixing the limits between the provinces of Quebec and Nova Scotia, or between Lower Canada and New Brunswick, under the commissions of their respective governors. It has been in fact long since determined, though perhaps by no formal and definitive act. The practical construction which has been given to the language of the proclamation of 1763, the Quebec act, and the several royal commissions, we believe is, to regard the highlands on both sides of the river as equally included within the description in those documents, and to avoid any conflict of jurisdiction, the river which divides them was assumed as the boundary line. The River Ristigouche, which flows into the Bay of Chaleurs, has accordingly become the boundary between Canada and New Brunswick, instead of the highlands extending to the bay, either on the north or south of that river. This adjustment of the question of

boundary between those two provinces, if definitively settled and formally recognized by the provincial authorities and the British Government, might be considered as sufficiently indicating the northerly side of the angle of Nova Scotia, described in the treaty, at least so far as to be conclusive against that government, if our own acquiesced in the decision. But whether it be so or not, is not very material. It is sufficiently apparent, from the uniform exercise of jurisdiction by the authorities of New Brunswick over the whole territory, extending to the Ristigouche River, and the forbearance of those of Canada to claim any to the south of that river, that the governments of both provinces, and of Great Britain, fully understood at the time when the treaty was made, and at periods long subsequent, that the northwest angle of Nova Scotia was situated in the regions some twenty or thirty miles north of the St. John.

If it be assumed, that the northern boundary of New Brunswick is not definitively settled, by any act of the British Government, and that it is yet to be settled, in literal conformity with the language of the treaty, such a determination of it cannot be attended with any difficulty. The angle described is one formed at the point where a line running due north from the source of the St. Croix intersects the highlands. Admitting, therefore, that the highlands running from the source of the Connecticut River, and terminating at the Bay of Chaleur, are divided into two or more ridges by streams running into the Bay of Chaleur, the point where the line drawn from the St. Croix first strikes the said highlands, must be regarded as the angle formed, on one side by the highlands.

Whether one assumption or the other be taken — that is, the boundary line as practically settled and acquiesced in by the two provinces, or the literal description of the highland line by treaty — there is but a trifling difference in the position of the point at which the northwest angle is to be established; this point in either case being about twenty or twenty-five miles north of the Great Falls of the St. John River.

When, therefore, the royal commissioner appointed under the treaty of Ghent, and sworn and instructed to ascertain the point designated in the treaty of 1783, as the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, and to determine the latitude and longitude of it, saw fit to designate Mars Hill as the position of that angle, he assumed what was at variance with facts, notorious to every person in the province. He assumed that an angle could be found, or imagined, in the middle of a straight line, where there is no line meeting it within a space of sixty miles. He assumed also, that the position of the northwestern angle was some sixty or seventy miles

distant from the line necessary to form its northerly side, when he knew that the intervening territory was regarded, by the British construction of the limits of their own territory, as belonging to New Brunswick.

That the territory intervening between Mars Hill and the highlands north of the St. John was embraced within the actual jurisdiction of the province of New Brunswick, and not of that of Canada, is a fact which will not be denied. The statute books of New Brunswick, as well as the records of its courts, afford abundant proofs of it. There is ample proof of it among the documents which have been published by the British Government relating to this controversy. For example, Sir John Harvey, late Lieutenant-Governor of New Brunswick, in his letter to Mr. Fox, of April 16, 1840, speaking of the part of the disputed territory north of Mars Hill, which was taken possession of by the militia of the state of Maine, in the winter of that year, says: "The whole of which territory had, up to that period, continued in the possession of Great Britain, and *had provisionally constituted an integral part of New Brunswick, subject to its laws and acknowledging no other jurisdiction*, namely, the valley of Aroostook," &c. Sir John Harvey, for the purpose of showing conclusively the jurisdiction of New Brunswick over the Madawaska settlement, the whole of which is situated at the north of the highlands of Mars Hill, and extends nearly to the highlands north of the St. John, refers in the same despatch above quoted, to a memorandum enclosed, from the Chief Justice of the province, in which the limits of the Madawaska settlement are described. In this memorandum the Chief Justice says, that the Madawaska settlers "have from time to time set down upon the lands, some under grants from the government of New Brunswick, and many without title. The lower limit of these settlements, as they existed in March, 1839, may be stated to be the Great Falls, and the upper limit the River St. Francis, and the settlements are made on both banks of the river." "The French settlers throughout this part of the country, without any distinction between those in the upper, and those in the lower parts of it, are known in New Brunswick by the common appellation of the 'Madawaska settlers,' and own a common allegiance to the crown of Great Britain. *The authorities of this province have always deemed their jurisdiction to extend alike to all parts of these settlements*, and there are many instances of the exercise of this jurisdiction, on record. These settlements, it will be observed, are situated along both banks of the St. John River, directly north of the height called Mars Hill, at a distance of forty or fifty miles, and we are thus presented with the phenomenon of a northwest angle of the province, established at a

position directly south of a tract of country over which the "authorities of the province have always deemed their jurisdiction to extend." The Madawaska territory, here described, is situated chiefly at the west of the meridian line, passing through the source of the St. Croix, and for that reason such part of it as lies west of that line, is claimed by the United States. It lies also south of the southern boundary of Canada, as is shown by the memorandum of the Chief Justice of New Brunswick, here cited, and as New Brunswick is bounded northerly on the southern line of Canada, the real northwest angle is to be found at the north, and not at the south of this territory. Adjoining the Madawaska territory, and immediately east of the meridian line above referred to, is situated the parish of Kent. This parish was incorporated by the provincial legislature of New Brunswick, in the year 1821, by an act "to erect the upper part of the county of York into a town or parish," and it includes "all that part of the county of York lying above the parish of Wakefield, on both sides of the river St. John." In this parish of Kent, are situated the valuable mill privileges upon the grand falls of the St. John. The parish of Wakefield, which lies south of Kent, but north of Mars Hill, and adjoins the mouth of the Aroostook River, was incorporated by the provincial Parliament of New Brunswick in 1803, and it then embraced the whole of the upper, or northern part of the county of York, including what is now the parish of Kent. The county of York, which extends to the River Ristigouche on the north, is bounded on the east by the county of Gloucester, which county is bounded also on the north by the Ristigouche. In the county of Gloucester, at the mouth of the River Ristigouche, and at its junction with the Bay of Chaleur, is situated the town of Dalhousie, the most northerly town of the province of New Brunswick.

The fact of the actual extension of the counties of York and Gloucester to the River Ristigouche, and of the claim by the authorities of New Brunswick, of the Madawaska territory as within the jurisdiction of New Brunswick, and not of Canada, must have been known to the commissioner, appointed by the king of Great Britain to ascertain the position of the northwest angle of New Brunswick. It is, therefore, difficult to account for his resolution to establish the angle at a point so far short of the well-known northerly extension of the province. The precise position at which the meridian line should terminate, whether at the River Ristigouche, or at the highlands very near it, at the south, or even in the highlands at the north of that stream, he might plead ignorance of, without exciting any surprise; but that instead of seeking in the northerly parts of the county of York for the required angle, he should attempt to establish it at the southerly

part of the county, is a fact so remarkable as to justify the inference that he was not desirous of agreeing with the American commissioner, in the designation of the said angle. Why so flimsy a pretext for discontinuing the survey, as that the angle sought was to be found at Mars Hill, was for a moment submitted to, by the American Government, and permitted to be the ground of discontinuing the labors of the commission, and referring the question to the arbitration of a friendly power, is a matter on which the public have had no information. It might have been expected that a perversion of the language of the treaty of 1783 so gross and palpable, would be at once protested against, as a manifest violation of the duty enjoined by the treaty of Ghent, and that if the survey could not be proceeded in, in the spirit of both treaties, all proceedings for terminating the controversy on the basis of this commission, would have here terminated.

We are fully aware, that there was a pretext for discontinuing the survey of the meridian line at Mars Hill, at the point marked B on the annexed map, instead of continuing it to C, or A, the points which we assume to be in the highlands described by the treaty. This pretext was, that the St. John River was not intended, by the framers of the treaty, as one of the rivers that fall into the Atlantic, and that, therefore, the description does not necessarily indicate highlands at the north of the St. John. It will be perceived, that in the foregoing remarks those parts of the description of the boundary line given in the treaty, which are independent of any reference to the course and termination of the St. John, have been chiefly relied on, and that so far as regards the authority for assuming the highlands north of that river, as the highlands of the treaty, it is immaterial whether the river flows into the Atlantic Ocean, or into the Red Sea. It is of no consequence in reference to the identity of highlands extending from the source of the Connecticut River to the Bay of Chaleur, and continuously dividing streams flowing to the right and left, what is the termination of the streams so divided. It is sufficient that there is a continuous ridge of highlands extending between the two extreme points named, and the only such ridge, is that which encircles the sources of the St. John, on the west and north. So also, the position of the northwest angle of Nova Scotia is identified beyond the power of contradiction, as situated directly at the north of the St. John River, and if it were conclusively shown that that river falls into no ocean whatever, it would in no degree weaken the evidence afforded by the treaty, that the highlands designated as forming the northern boundary of Maine, are those which lie north of that river, or that the eastern boundary line,

required to be drawn from the St. Croix River, "directly north to the aforesaid highlands," instead of terminating at Mars Hill, must of necessity be extended across the St. John River, for the purpose of completing the boundary defined by the treaty. Again, it is shown, independently of any consideration of the termination of the St. John River, that no claim has ever been made by any British authority, that the limits or jurisdiction of the province of Canada extended to the south of that river, as the same were described in the proclamation of 1763, or the act of Parliament of 1774, or the commission of Mr. Haldimand, who was governor-in-chief of the province of Quebec in 1783; but it has been merely contended that the jurisdiction of that tract of territory was in the British crown, as appurtenant to the province of New Brunswick. Now it does not depend upon the question, whether the St. John falls into the Atlantic Ocean or not, where the western boundary of New Brunswick is to be placed. It was declared in the commission of King George III. to Montague Wilmot, Esq., Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of the province of Nova Scotia, in 1763, and also in the commission of John Parr, Esq., Governor of the same province in 1783, as well as in the treaty of peace of that year, that the said province of Nova Scotia was, and should be bounded on the west, by a line running directly north from the source of the St. Croix, to the highlands which formed the southern boundary of the province of Quebec.

It will be seen, therefore, that as regards the evidence of the identity of the highlands described in the treaty, it is quite immaterial whether the river St. John is to be considered, in strictness of language, as running into the Atlantic Ocean, or not. It is nevertheless true, that this river is not only evidently intended by the framers of the treaty, and most properly described as in the class of rivers which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, in contradistinction from another class, which fall into the river St. Lawrence. It is a river of 400 miles in extent, which is discharged directly into the Bay of Fundy, an arm of the Atlantic Ocean, and through that bay into the ocean itself, at a distance of about 50 miles. In precisely the same manner the other rivers embraced in the class of Atlantic rivers,—the Penobscot, Kennebec, and Connecticut,—discharge their waters into bays, and through them into the ocean, and no one of them directly into the ocean. The only difference is, that the distance is somewhat greater, from the immediate termination of the other rivers respectively, to the ocean, than from that of St. John. Yet this difference is not so great as to leave the slightest doubt as to the intention of those who drew the treaty, to include this river within the class of rivers falling into the Atlantic. That such was their meaning is apparent from

the fact, that any other interpretation makes entire nonsense of the whole passage, besides leaving the most important of the tract of territory embraced in the description wholly unnoticed. So obvious is it, that such was the meaning of the framers of the treaty, especially when it is known that Mitchell's map * was before them at the time when they wrote and assented to the treaty, that to attribute to them any other meaning, must be to suppose them to be destitute of common sense. It is, in fact, to render this whole part of the treaty senseless and nugatory.

Mitchell's map, by which the commissioners were governed in framing the description of the boundaries of the territory relinquished to the States by the treaty, although in many respects inaccurate, particularly in the delineation of the course of rivers, was free from any material error in its general features. So far as regards the description in the treaty of the part of the boundary in question, there is no ground for supposing that the commissioners were led into any error, or to the adoption of a different language in that description, from what they would have used had they been possessed of the most perfect map of the country which can now be formed. It was apparent from a view of that map, that the meridian line from the source of the river St. Croix,

* That the commissioners who framed the treaty relied for their knowledge of the country upon Mitchell's map, is proved by the testimony of two of them, Mr. Adams, and Dr. Franklin. The latter states the fact in the following terms, in a letter written at the time of the investigation, preparatory to the convention for determining what river was intended in the treaty under the name of the St. Croix :

" PHILADELPHIA, April 8, 1790.

" SIR: I received your letter of the 31st of last past, relating to encroachments made on the eastern limits of the United States, by settlers under the British Government, pretending that it is the *western*, and not the *eastern* river of the Bay of Passamaquoddy which was designated by the name of St. Croix in the treaty of peace with that nation, and requesting of me to communicate any facts, which my memory or papers may enable me to recollect, and which may indicate the true river, which the commissioners on both sides had in their view to establish as the boundary between the two nations. Your letter found me under a severe fit of my malady, which prevented my answering it sooner, or attending, indeed, to any kind of business. I can now assure you that I am perfectly clear in the remembrance, that the map we used in tracing the boundary, was brought to the treaty by the commissioners from England, and that it was the same that was published by Mitchell, above twenty years before. Having a copy of that map by me in loose sheets, I send you that sheet which contains the Bay of Passamaquoddy, where you will see that part of the boundary traced. I remember, too, that in part of the boundary, we relied much on the opinion of Mr. Adams, who had been concerned in some former disputes concerning those territories. I think, therefore, that you may obtain some further light from him. That the map we used was Mitchell's map, Congress were acquainted at the time, by letter to their Secretary for Foreign Affairs, which I suppose may be found upon their files.

" I have the honor to be, with the greatest esteem and respect, Sir, your most obedient and most humble servant,

" B. FRANKLIN.

" To Thomas Jefferson,
Secretary of State of the United States."

would cross the St. John, and meet the highlands on the north of that river, and consequently that in conformity with the description in the treaty, the whole country watered by the upper branches of the St. John, which is there laid down as a part of New England, would be relinquished to the United States. It is, therefore, an obvious and necessary inference, that such was the intention of the framers of the treaty.

It is intimated above, that a claim has been made in behalf of the State of Maine, of some 400,000 acres of territory, not obviously embraced within the limits defined in the treaty. The claim here referred to, is that which embraces a tract of mountain territory, extending to the highlands, which are to be found north of the tributaries of the River Ristigouche, on the assumption that the line drawn due north from the St. Croix, is to be extended across the head branches of the Ristigouche, to the point indicated on the annexed map at A, instead of terminating at the point C. It is maintained, that the River Ristigouche is to be considered, in the meaning of the treaty, as belonging to the class of waters which fall into the Atlantic Ocean. If we were speaking of rivers extending from the inland parts of the continent, over the whole eastern section, in contradistinction from rivers which flow into the Pacific Ocean, or the Gulf of Mexico, it might not be inappropriate to embrace the streams falling into the Gulf of St. Lawrence under the general description of rivers which empty themselves into the Atlantic Ocean. But when rivers falling into the Atlantic Ocean are spoken of in contradistinction merely from others falling into the River St. Lawrence, it can hardly be admitted that this description will embrace those which fall into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, especially in the absence of any collateral evidence that they were intended to be so included. In the present case, there does not appear to be the least reason to suppose, that in the description of the southern boundary of the province of Quebec, in the proclamation of 1763, or in the act of Parliament of 1774, the description of rivers which fall into the sea was intended to embrace rivers falling into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, or that the description of highlands was intended to apply to those north of the Ristigouche, to the exclusion of those on the south. If such be a true construction of this part of the treaty, the mountainous tract at the sources of the Ristigouche, between the points indicated on the map, marked A, E, and C, is not included within the limits of the United States.

The question in regard to this part of the claim is chiefly important because it has given rise to the impression that a delineation of the line of boundary in literal compliance with the description in the treaty is impracticable, without assuming that the Ristigouche is a river which falls into the Atlantic. It will be



seen, from what has been stated above, that this supposition is altogether unfounded. The highlands, extending from the source of the Connecticut River to the Bay of Chaleur, are distinctly defined, until they reach the point E on the map. They here separate into two irregular ridges, being intersected by the waters flowing into the Bay of Chaleur, both which ridges form part of the range described in the treaty. The point where the due north line meets this ridge, (unless an intermediate point between the two ridges is substituted by some act assented to by the two governments,) is the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, and consequently the point at which the northern boundary of the United States begins.

Such is our understanding of the treaty. The strength of the American claim has been obscured and weakened, by some inadvertent admissions. Surely nothing but a gross inadvertence could have permitted a reference of the whole question in controversy to the arbitration of a foreign power, on a disagreement between the commissioners, resting upon so ridiculous a pretext, as that the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, the grand landmark named in the treaty as the starting point of the line of boundary, was to be found at Mars Hill. So also, what could have been a grosser inadvertence, than the proposition repeatedly made by Mr. Livingston, under the direction of General Jackson, but not acceded to at the time by the British Government, that if no highlands can be found in a direction due north from the source of the St. Croix, "which divide those waters that empty themselves into the St. Lawrence from those that fall into the Atlantic Ocean," in such case the due north line shall be discarded, and a line shall be drawn in any direction to highlands which may be found answering the description, in any part of the disputed territory, north or south of the St. John River? This concession, if it had any meaning, was an abandonment of one of the material conditions of the treaty, for the express purpose of giving some plausibility to the British claim, which without it, could hardly be pretended to exist?

It is foreign from our purpose to go into any history of the negotiations for settling this controversy. These negotiations, as intimated at the beginning of this article, are now in a train which affords a hope of a satisfactory adjustment. The more reliance is to be placed on the expectation of an amicable termination of the controversy at this time, from the fact that both parties must be convinced, that the whole value of the territory in dispute would not be an adequate indemnity to the parties for the hazard of leaving it undetermined a single year, and for the injury in that period, resulting from the unsettled state of the relations between the two governments.

M I S C E L L A N Y .

UNITED STATES EXPLORING EXPEDITION.

THE Vincennes corvette, the flag ship of the United States Exploring Squadron, which has been engaged for the last four years in the Pacific and Antarctic Oceans, arrived at New York on the 10th of June. The other vessels of the squadron are expected daily.

We have from time to time given accounts of the more prominent operations of this squadron, as they have reached us.* The results of its voyages and the labors of its officers are such as to reflect great honor on those who were engaged in it, and to answer the high expectations which have been formed of it. The expedition sailed on the 18th of August, 1838; the different vessels composing it have been unremittingly engaged in its duties during the intervening four years.

Several of the principal groups of islands in the Pacific Ocean have been visited, examined, and surveyed; a friendly intercourse and protective commercial regulations established with the chiefs and natives; aggressions on our citizens and commerce redressed, and a justly merited punishment meted out in some flagrant cases of unprovoked and cold-blooded murder. The positions assigned on the charts to several reefs, shoals, and islands, have been carefully looked for, run over, and found to have no existence in or near the places assigned to them.

Several islands not laid down in the charts have been discovered, on one of which the natives offered worship, evidently believing that their visitors had come from the sun.

The Sooloo Sea has also been examined, several islands found to have been erroneously laid down upon the charts, and others not to have been laid down at all. Protective commercial regulations have been established with the Sultan of Sooloo, and a correct chart made of a feasible and short route for passing through those seas for China, against the northeast monsoon.

The expedition, during its absence, has also examined and surveyed a large portion of the Oregon Territory, a part of Upper California, including the Columbia and Sacramento Rivers, with their various tributaries. Several exploring parties from the squadron have examined, and fixed the positions of those portions of the Oregon Territory which were least known. A map of the Territory, embracing its rivers, sounds, harbors, coasts, forts, &c., has been prepared, which will furnish the

* See Monthly Chronicle, Vol. I. pp. 210, 239, 287, Vol. II. pp. 31, 394, Vol. III. p. 91.

government with a mass of valuable information relative to its possessions on the Northwest Coast, and the whole of Oregon.

Experiments were made with the pendulum, on "Mouna Loa or Roa," on the Island of Hawaii, one of the Sandwich Islands, at a height of fourteen thousand feet above the level of the sea. Topographical surveys and views were made of some of its active and most extensive craters.

Experiments have been made with the pendulum, magnetic apparatus, and various other instruments, on all occasions where useful results could be obtained; the temperature of the ocean, at various depths, ascertained in the different seas traversed, and full meteorological and other observations kept during the cruise.

By far the most interesting discovery of the expedition, is the great Antarctic Continent, the northern coast of which it coasted for a distance of several hundred miles. We have before given the details of this interesting discovery, so far as they have reached our government, in the report of Captain Wilkes, [Mon. Chron. Vol. I. pp. 210, 287, Vol. II. p. 394,] illustrated by a chart of the Antarctic regions, on which the discoveries of the expedition, as well as those of Captain Ross, are delineated. It will be recollected, that Captain Ross's discovery, in a more southern latitude, of an eastern coast of what is probably the same continent, was made in the ensuing season. The chart in Vol. II. p. 392, shows the routes of both the English and the American, as well as that of the recent French expedition. There is not, as has been sometimes implied, the slightest contradiction in the narratives of the several commanders. To Captain Wilkes and his associates belongs whatever credit arises from making the earliest and most extensive discoveries. None of this Antarctic region has been landed upon, except a small island discovered by Captain Ross.

Charts of all the surveys of the squadron have been made, with views and sketches of headlands, towns or villages, &c., with descriptions of all that appertains to the localities, productions, language, customs, and manners. At some of the islands, this duty has been attended with much labor, exposure, and risk of life; the treacherous character of the natives rendering it absolutely necessary that the officers and men should be armed while on duty, and at all times prepared against their murderous attacks. On several occasions, boats have been absent from the different vessels of the squadron, on surveying duty, (the greater portion of which has been performed in boats,) among islands, reefs, &c., for a period of ten, twenty, and thirty days at one time; on one of these occasions, two of the officers were killed at the Fiji group, while defending their boats' crew from an attack by the natives.

The scientific gentlemen have been actively engaged in their various departments, and subject to all the exposures incident to researches among dangerous and hostile savages. Mr. Hale, the philologist of the expedition, was left at the Columbia River, for the purpose of prosecuting his labors among the different tribes of the Oregon territory. He arrived home before the rest of the expedition, having crossed the continent. In addition to the large collections already received from the expedition, the Vincennes has now on board a large and valuable collection, including

several boxes of live plants, bulbs, &c., collected in the Pacific, Sooloo, at the Phillipines, Singapore, Cape of Good Hope, and St. Helena.

Although the officers and crew of the Expedition have been exposed to every variety of climate, the general health of the squadron has been without a precedent. But one officer, (Mr. Vanderford, master's mate, who died on the passage home,) and only eight of the men, have died from disease.

Besides the great Antarctic Continent, the Expedition examined or surveyed the following ports, reefs, and islands:

Ports visited. — Madeira, Port Praya (Cape de Verde), Rio Janeiro (Brazil), Valparaiso (Chili), Callao (Peru), Sydney (New South Wales), New Zealand, Manilla (Laconia I.), Singapore, Cape of Good Hope, St. Helena.

Reefs, shoals, &c., looked for, and not found. — St. Ann's Shoal, Maria Rock, Bonio Felix Shoals, Bonetta Shoals, Hartwell Reef, Patty's Overfalls, Warley Shoals, French Shoal in two positions, Triton Bank, Vigia, Bowvett's Sandy Isles, Submarine Volcano at Kraisenstene.

ISLANDS SURVEYED, WITH THE HARBORS.

Low Archipelago. — Clermont Tonnerre Island; Serle's Island; Minerva; Hondens; Wyhite; Otookoo; Kings; Raraka; Vincennes; Carlshoff; Waterland; Wilson and Peacock; Rurick's Chain; Prince of Wales; Krusenstern's.

Society Islands. — Maitea; Otaheite and harbors; Eimeo; Bellinghousen; Rosa.

Navigator Group. — Manucah; Lutuella; Upolu; Monoko; Aposimo; Savaii; Wallis's Island; Horn; Lord North's; Macquarie's; Eooa; Tongataboo; Harpai; Turtle.

Fiji Group. — Fifteen Islands and fifty Reefs, viz.: Tulanga Island; Angea; Nambus Angea Bank; Angasa Island; Namulka; Morambo; Engrasso; Cambia; Komo; Mothe; Karoni; Oloma; Oneata; Avia; Lakemba; Bacon's, 2; Reed's, 3; Nean; Tubutted; Yeaki; Hatafouga; Vanderford; Verna Ballan; Susui; Manea; Sicombia; Olohu; Muago; Hanathea; Molucio; Ohembon; Nartomba; Zelangula; Chielia; Vatala; Namko; Oneholafango; Onuminsio; Houlelavon; Oretena; Lavatala; Kenobid; Iac; Lomo Somo; Budd; North; Maury; Holmes, De Haven; Oranibi; Okid; Lortoai; Maola; Nanai; Angasa; Gora; Batika; Vanul Levu; Morna Orna; Malee; Vakai; Maona, 2 Islands; Direction, 4 Islands; Horse Shoe Reef; Ovalaw Island; Moro; Neniau; Passage; Ono; Kantavu.

Passed Midshipman's Group of Islands, ten in number. — G. Endua; Botuman; Mallana; Benga; Nuanoka; Vita Levu; Flying Fish Reef.

Midshipman's Group of Islands, four in number. — Maton Island; Malolo.

Waldron Island; Speedin; Palmer; Peny; Alden; Case; Johnson; Carr; Walker's; Emmons.

Knox Island; Davis Island; Baldin's Island; Totten's Island.

Vouno Island; Vier Valan; Waid Lalai; Ward; Bivi; Agate; Sin-

clair; Fox Island; Eld; Naviti; Nagetta; Matatha Valle; Otoason; Nanoga; Nadora; Orana; Ya Asalana; Ya Asana; Ya Roin; Mim-bora; Naola; Vendola; Tavia; Muthauata; Kinsuna; Round; Angrajas; Gera; Chicobia; Nugulou; Corabia; Maselou; Annan; Be-oia, 2 Islands; Gardner's Island; McKean's; Hull's; Sydney; Taber; Washington, or New York Island; Jarvis's; Enderby's Bennie; Duke of York; Duke of Clarence; Bowditch; Swain's; Ellen's Islands, or Group; Endua Islands; Tracy's Island seen; Depeyster's Island discovered.

Kingsmill Group. — Drummond's Island; Bishop, or Sydenham's; Woodle's; Hendervill's; Hull's; Simpson's; Knox; Charlotte; Mathews; Pitt's Island, 2; Mulgrave; Arrowsmith's; Daniels; Peddar's Pescadores; Karsakoff, 2 islands.

Sandwich Islands. — Oahu; Kauai; Hawaii; Maui.

Ladrones. — Wakes; Guam; Assumption.

Sooloo Islands and Sea; Mangsee; Straits of Balback, Balanquay, Rhio, Banca, Sunda, Casper; Bourbon's Island; Hunter's; Barney; Favorles; Luis; M'Kennie's; Straits of Barandena; Vasquez Island; Pylstaarts; Sunday.

Rio Negro; Cape Horn; Orange Harbor, &c.

Columbia River, (surveyed to the cascades and falls, 120 miles.) Straits of Juan de Fuca; Puget Sound; Nasquolly; New Dungenness; Classett Harbor, and all the harbors in that vicinity. These surveys were made while the expedition was engaged on the western shore of the Oregon Territory. It also examined the harbor of San Francisco and the River Sacramento, in Mexico.

RECOLLECTIONS OF PEKIN.

BY A RUSSIAN TRAVELLER.

In the first few days of our residence at Pekin, we experienced so much inconvenience from our European clothing, that we made all possible haste to exchange it for the costume of the Chinese. Fortunately for us, no one here need trouble himself with the care of what he shall put on, and wherewithal he shall be clothed, a thing that disturbs so many a head in the more intellectual capitals of Europe, for the truly paternal or *maternal* government of China releases its subjects even from this anxiety. The wonderfully complex Chinese wardrobe, with all its divisions and subdivisions, is subjected to certain rigid and invariable laws, and not to the ever-changeful caprices of fashion. The vicissitudes of the seasons determine the regular periodical changes of dress, and they are observed with the same punctual obedience, as the dictates of the fickle deity by the fair "*lionnes*" of Paris or London. There is no room either for the feeling of irreverent mirth, with which we are some-

times disposed to regard the cut of our grandfather's coat, for grandfather, father, and son, are all habited in garments of the same fashion, and an Imperial proclamation announces to the lieges of the Celestial Empire when the time has arrived for exchanging the costume of spring for that of summer, and that again for what befits the autumn. One point, however, has been left unguarded. Like Achilles, they are vulnerable in the heel, and the fashion of shoes is continually varying.

We no sooner found ourselves equipped in full Chinese costume, as by law established, than we sallied forth in a small hired chaise, to gratify our curiosity with a sight of Pekin. We drove past the palace of the Emperor, who, however, only passes the winter here, but the spring, summer, and autumn at a country residence twelve miles off the capital. The town palace occupies an immense space, and consists of a vast assemblage of houses of one story high, covered with tiles. Each of these is separate, and has its particular destination. In one, the Emperor lives; in another, transacts business; a third is the residence of the Empress; a fourth of the widow of the deceased Emperor; a fifth contains the concubines of the reigning sovereign, a sixth those of the departed one; others are inhabited by their children, eunuchs, and attendants in countless swarms. Each house is surrounded with a high wall, within which none may enter without permission. These are again inclosed in one general wall, the gates of which open only to the courtiers, and the outer inclosure alone is free to be entered by the public. The shining yellow tiles covering the roof of the palace were all we were destined to behold of it; and turning away after this scanty gratification, we drove through a street which, like all the principal ones, was distinguished for breadth and regularity, but none are paved. In the middle of every main street, the earth is thrown up to the height of about three feet, for foot passengers and light carriages; those heavily laden, and drawn by from five to seven mules, must pass along the narrow paths at the side next the houses; but when, after heavy rain, these become filled with impassable mud, even heavy vehicles are allowed the advantage of the raised road, which, being broad, would be convenient enough, were it not hemmed in by tents and booths, encroaching so much on the pathway as scarcely to leave room for two carriages to drive abreast. When the Celestial Majesty goes out to take a drive, which happens several times during the year, these booths are all cleared away, and the road smoothed and covered with yellow sand, that the inconveniences of the streets of the capital may not be experienced by its ruler.

The immense population of Pekin occasions the streets to be filled the whole day with an uninterrupted succession of vehicles, proceeding in two lines in opposite directions, and it sometimes happens that the whole procession is brought to a stand-still by nothing more than a question of politeness. If a Chinese, when driving, meets an acquaintance on foot, he must necessarily dismount from his carriage, let the weather or the dirt be what it may, inquire after his friend's health, and invite him to enter the equipage. The pedestrian is, of course, equally bound to reciprocate the inquiries, and to entreat the first to pursue his way. The

owner of the carriage, however, will not get into it till the walker has passed on, and he, on his part, cannot think of passing on till the other has got in. This ceremony will sometimes occupy half an hour, and if the *rencontre* should happen to be of dignified official personages, the Chinese await its conclusion with marvellous patience. Now and then, however, the case is different. On this our first drive it happened that a ragged, dirty fellow, in a kind of greasy smock frock, who was driving a sorry looking machine, drawn by a lean mule, detained us all a quarter of an hour with his grimaces on meeting an acquaintance, but this was too much for his long-suffering countrymen, and they bawled to him to cut short his politeness and drive on.

Although the principal streets are, as I have said, sufficiently wide, the by-streets are so narrow, that two carriages cannot pass in them, and a driver is obliged on entering them to call out, that no one may enter at the same time at the opposite end. Formerly, at every point of intersection between these streets, there stood a gate, closed at night, but though many of these gates are still standing, the custom has been discontinued.

The houses of the Chinese have a monotonous appearance, being mostly surrounded with high walls of gray, half-baked brick, above which nothing but their peaked roofs are to be seen. The only exception to this uniform gray color is offered by the imperial palace, which is covered with smooth yellow tiles. Besides this, seven or eight princely abodes offer some variety of color, but the unvarying dusty hue of the rest would become insupportably wearisome, were it not for the relief afforded by the projecting shops. Before the entrance of each of these hangs a varnished black board covered with gold letters, but there is little decoration in any other than the sweetmeat shops. The whole fronts of these are almost always covered with gilding, enriched with sprawling dragons and other figures, and their splendor is rendered still more striking from the contrast presented not unfrequently by the ruinous hovel and broken-down wall adjoining.

Gardens or walks for public resort do not exist in Peking, and among the buildings the only ones worthy of notice are the temples, which are profusely painted with vermilion.

Among the sins of the Chinese, certainly cannot be counted that of an excess of ceremonial devotion, for these temples are almost always empty. A newly-appointed official sometimes seems to consider it a duty, when the place obtained is a lucrative one, to visit all the temples in the city, and he then goes to work in the following manner. He carries into the temple a bundle of tapers, made of the bark of trees and sweet-scented oil, and kindles them before the idols, whilst the priest strikes with a stick on a metal plate. The worshipper then makes a few prostrations, throws down some money, and the business is settled. The common people never enter the temples but on particular occasions, such, for instance, as in time of great drought, when they go thither in troops to pray for rain. Of any other prayer than a supplication for immediate temporal benefit they do not seem to have any idea.

During certain days in every year, indeed, the temples are much fre-

quented, but for the purposes of trade, not of devotion. The courts are then filled with traders, who display their goods, principally of the ornamental kind, and the visitors stroll about, or make purchases, as at a fair. Enormous prices are demanded on these occasions. For a stone of a grass-green color, much valued by the Chinese for rings, bracelets, &c., a merchant asked me 250 *lan*, (upwards of £100,) and took 26. The scene is further enlivened by the exhibitions of conjurors throwing knives, tumblers walking on their hands, and other similar diversions, but by the evening the temple is again left silent and desolate. The priest alone had the ceremony to perform of burning three times in the day a small taper before the idols, prostrating himself at the same time. Should this duty become too onerous, he sends one of his scholars to do it for him, and if the scholar should not happen to be in the way, perhaps a common day-laborer. As long as the tapers are lighted at the proper time, and the due portion of the prostrations performed, all is right. It must be a very unreasonable idol that would require more.

If the houses of religious worship usually stand empty, the houses of public entertainment, on the other hand, are almost always full. The prices charged at these places are enormously high, and among the young men of the wealthy classes, it is by no means uncommon for a supper party of three or four to spend 50 *lan* (£23 10s.) The dainties consumed on these occasions are of a very *recherché* description, and principally recommended by the difficulty of procuring them. A favorite dish, for instance, is roasted *ice*, which is enormously dear, as very few cooks possess the skill and dexterity required for its preparation. A lump of ice is taken upon a sieve, and after being quickly enveloped in a sort of paste made of sugar, eggs, and spices, is plunged into a pan full of boiling pork fat or lard. The grand point is then to serve it up before the ice has time to melt. What may be the peculiar attraction of this dainty dish it would be hard to say, for though frozen inside it burns the mouth when first tasted. A small plateful costs six *lan* (about 36s.) The Chinese viands in general are disagreeable to an European, as they do not use salt in their cookery, and do use an immoderate quantity of pork fat, besides ginger and garlic. The roast meats, however, it must be admitted, form an honorable exception, and would be acceptable even at the table of a Parisian *gastronome*. The immense number of taverns (or *traiteurs*) in Pekin find no want of support, as it is the custom to entertain guests there, and not at private houses, to which relationship or very particular intimacy alone can give a claim to be invited. A banquet at one of these houses is considered to be a necessary conclusion to the pleasure of a theatrical entertainment, which is generally over by six in the evening, beginning at eleven in the forenoon. At these dinners, or suppers, the handsome boys who play the female parts are frequent guests, and they are allowed to select the dishes. Their choice, as may be supposed, is seldom guided by economy, and indeed it occasionally happens that they have an understanding with the master of the house. These boys are generally elegantly dressed, polished in their manners, and fluent and even witty in their conversation.

The Chinese women are to be seen neither in the temples, nor the theatres, nor the taverns, but only in the streets. None but the lowest class ever walk on foot, others drive in carioles, and ladies of the highest rank are borne in litters. They go without veils, with their heads uncovered, and decorated with beautiful artificial flowers. Indeed, this custom of sticking flowers in the hair is so prevalent, that I have known a dirty old cook, running out to buy a little garlic or a cabbage, stop to adorn her gray locks with a flower. The dress of the Chinese women consists of red or green trousers, embroidered with colored silks, and a jacket and upper garment likewise embroidered. Narrow shoulders and a flat bosom being regarded as handsome, they bind a broad girdle tight over the breast, by way of improving their figures.

Going out to take a drive is an affair of great ceremony with a Chinese lady, as she must have one horseman to ride before her carriage, one to ride after, a coachman to drive, and two men on each side to hold up the vehicle lest it should tip over. The entrance is at the front, and the mule which draws it is not harnessed till the lady and her attendant have entered, which is managed by bringing the carriage into the house and resting the poles upon the stairs. When a gentleman goes out, he displays his magnificence by the number of his attendants, which often exceeds twenty. Not more than one or two of these fellows are decently dressed, but, however ragged or dirty, pride demands that a numerous troop of these lazy vagabonds should be maintained.

The movement in the streets of Peking begins with break of day, that is, in summer at four o'clock, and in winter at six, and the noise and bustle increases till seven, when it is at its height. By nine or ten o'clock the whole city is asleep, the most profound stillness reigns in the desolate streets, and only here and there is seen the faint light of a paper lantern fastened against a post.

Quarrels in the streets of Peking seldom occur, as the Chinese are the arrantest cowards in the world, and rarely think of fighting if there is a possibility of running away. They can, however, become formidable when rendered desperate, but seldom have recourse on common occasions to any other weapon but the tongue. Once, indeed, during the early part of my stay at Peking, I witnessed an affray, in which two Chinese, armed with thick sticks, attacked with indescribable rage a third, who had offended them, and though, having received some severe blows on the head, the poor devil fell senseless to the ground, they continued to work away at him, without being prevented by the bystanders. By-and-by the police appeared, but deterred, apparently, by the flashing eyes and stout cudgels of the belligerents from interfering in their diversion, waited till they had belabored their victim to their hearts' content, and then carried them off, unresisting, to the magistrate. — *Allgemeine Zeitung*.

BIRTHS, DEATHS, AND MARRIAGES IN ENGLAND.

WE have published heretofore, [Mon. Chron. Vol. I. p. 365,] an abstract of the report of the Registrar-General, of the births, deaths, and marriages in England, embracing those of the year ending June 30, 1839. We now give an abstract of his third report, embracing a similar statement for the year ending June 30, 1840, with some comparative statements respecting the three successive years. Some extracts from the appendix to this last report, containing interesting remarks upon the causes of death, and the comparative number of violent deaths at different periods, were given in a late Number of this volume, [p. 83,] but the report itself had not then reached us. The table formed from the signatures to the parish registers, by the persons married, is a curious document, as affording a scale for measuring the state of education in the different parts of the kingdom. The remarkable coincidence between the results thus obtained from the different districts in the two successive years, affords a conclusive proof of the accuracy of the scale for testing the facts in question. The report, of which this is an abstract, was made by T. H. Lister, the Registrar-General, and published by order of Parliament.

The following statement will show the numbers registered in the year ending June 30, 1840, compared with those of the preceding years :

	1839, '40.	1838, '39.	1837, '38.
Births,	501,589	480,540	399,712
Deaths,	350,101	331,007	335,956
Marriages, . . .	124,329	121,083	111,481

There is thus an increase in the number of births registered in the year ending June 13, 1840, over those in 1838, '9, of 21,049 ; over those in 1837, '8, of 101,877.

In the number of deaths registered in the year ending June 30, 1840, over those in 1838, '9, of 19,094 ; over those in 1837, '8, of 14,145.

In the number of marriages registered in the year ending June 30, 1840, over those in 1838, '9, of 3,246 ; over those in 1837, '8, of 12,848.

The increase in the number of registered births results from a continuance of that successful operation of the new law, to which I have already adverted in my first and second reports, and which began to appear after the former half of the first year of registration ; and I can truly state, as before, that I attribute this success mainly to the diffusion of a true knowledge of the beneficial tendencies of the measure, and to the diligence and intelligence of the local officers by whom it is carried into execution.

In each of the last three years the proportion of male and female births has been very nearly the same.

The increase of deaths compared with those of the two preceding years is less than it appears to be. It must be remembered that the first year's registration could not comprise the deaths of the whole year, which, including those registered subsequently, amounted to 338,660. The real

increase, therefore, over the registered deaths which occurred in the year 1837, '8, is 11,441. It must also be borne in mind, that the population of England and Wales was shown by the censuses of 1821 and 1831 to have increased from 1821 to 1831 at the rate of 16 per cent.; and if it be assumed, (as is probable,) that this rate of increase has continued to the present time, the population in the years 1838, '9, and 1839, '40, will probably have increased to the amount of from 220,000 to 240,000 yearly. If the lowest of these numbers be taken, and the mortality be estimated at the lowest rate consistent with probability, namely, 1 in 50, there will in each of these years, at the same rate of mortality, have been at least 4,400 more deaths than in the year preceding. This number, therefore, (being the probable increase, at the same rate of mortality,) must be deducted; and the remaining numbers, which indicate increased mortality, will, for the year 1839, '40, as compared with 1837, '8, be about 7,000; compared with 1838, '9 about 14,700. Yet this increase is great; and inasmuch as there is reason to believe, that it is not merely an apparent increase, arising, like that of births, from the improved efficiency of a registration which, at the commencement, was very defective, (for the very efficient registration of deaths, even in the first year, left no such room for improvement,) but that there has really been an increased mortality to that amount, a circumstance so serious demands attention and inquiry, with a view to ascertain the nature of the increase, and especially whether it has been sudden or progressive, general or local, and whether affecting equally or unequally all ages and both sexes.

The proportion of male to female deaths in each of the three years has been nearly the same, as appears from the following numbers;

	Males.	Females.
Year ending June 30, 1838,	170,965	164,991
" " " " 1839,	169,112	161,895
" " " " 1840,	177,929	172,172

On examination of the ages at which deaths have occurred in the foregoing years, it appears that the increase has been principally in the deaths of children, as is shown by the following table:

YEARS.	AGE.			
	Under 5 years.	5 to 60.	60 and upwards.	All ages, inc. those spec'd.
1837 '38	131,034	128,921	75,127	335,956
1838 '39	130,695	126,594	72,860	331,007
1839 '40	141,747	131,730	75,973	350,101
Excess of deaths, in 1839 '40 over 1837 '38,	10,713	2,809	846	14,145
Over 1838 '39,	11,052	5,136	3,113	19,094

Thus more than half of the excess over the deaths of 1838 '9, and more than three fourths of the excess over those of 1837 '8, consisted of the deaths of children under five years of age.

That this increased mortality has not been general, but has been con-

finer to certain localities; while, at the same time, there has been a decreased mortality in other parts of the kingdom, appears from a given table.

The counties in which there has been the greatest increase of mortality, compared with that of 1838 and 1839, are Lancashire, Nottinghamshire, West Riding of Yorkshire, Leicestershire, Cheshire, Gloucestershire, Northumberland, Durham, Derbyshire, and North Wales, the combined increase of which alone amounts to 15,231, out of the total increase of 19,097.

The prevalence of such increased mortality in those counties, which comprise the largest proportion of manufacturing population, naturally suggests that the cause may probably be found in circumstances to which the manufacturing classes have been peculiarly exposed. But a further examination shows, that not only has the increase varied very much within those counties, but that there has even been a decreased mortality in some of those districts which are peculiarly the seats of manufacture. Such has been the case in Manchester and Salford, Ashton, Oldham, Stockport, and Leeds. Therefore, though manufacturing distress cannot be excluded from among the possible causes of increased mortality, care must be taken not to assign such mortality to this one cause in an undue degree.

It appears from the evidence of the entries in the register-books, and the reports of superintendent registrars, that this increased mortality is attributable chiefly to the prevalence of epidemics, especially of typhus and scarlet fever, and that the districts of Chorley, Leigh, Wigan, Burnley, and Blackburn, in Lancashire; Macclesfield, Dewsbury, Pontefract, Nottingham, Bingham, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, Bangor, and Beaumaris, are those in which these diseases have been fatal to the greatest extent.

The great increase in the number of marriages, an increase amounting to 12,848, over those registered in the year 1837 '8, compared with the much smaller increase, amounting only to 3,246, over those of the year 1838 '9, confirms the statement made in my second report, that the number in 1837 '8 must not be considered as an average number, but that there was a deficiency in that year, attributable to the change in the law; many marriages, as I was informed, having, under a misapprehension of the object and effect of the Act for Marriages, been solemnized immediately before that act came into operation. Of the increase, amounting to 3,246, over the registered marriages of the year 1838, '9, more than half may be regarded as the natural result of increased population. It is calculated that the population of England and Wales, at the middle of the latter of the above-mentioned years of registration, namely, Jan. 1, 1839, exceeded by not less than 225,000 the population on Jan. 1, 1838; and as the ordinary proportion of marriages to population is nearly 8 annually to every 1,000 persons, more than 1,700 marriages may be ascribed to the increase of the population; and the excess, independent of such increase, will thus be reduced to little more than 1,500.

In the abstract of marriages I have included the numbers of each sex married under 21 years of age, which were 6,100 men and 17,909 women, being in proportion to the whole number married 4.90 per cent. and

14.40 per cent. respectively. This proportion is in a slight degree higher than in the preceding year, when the numbers were 5,628 men and 16,414 women, and the proportions 4.64 and 13.55.

The results exhibited by this table correspond very closely with those stated in my report of the preceding year. I then mentioned, as the counties in which early marriages appeared to prevail, Hertford, Bedford, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Northampton, Leicester, and Essex. The same, with the addition of Wiltshire, are the eight counties in which, in the succeeding year, are the largest proportion of men married under the age of 21. The results are also similar in these two years respecting those portions of the kingdom in which early marriages have been most rare.

I have in my second report endeavored to throw light upon the state of education, with respect to writing, among the adult population of England and Wales, by showing the proportion per cent. in the metropolis, in each English county, and in North and South Wales, of persons married in the year ending June 30th, 1840, who, instead of writing their names in the marriage register, have signed with marks.

It appears from a table given, that in thirteen English counties, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and in Wales, more than 40 per cent. of the men married did not write their names; and that in nineteen English counties, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and in Wales, the same fact existed with respect to more than half the women; and it appears from an abstract of marriages, that in the whole of England and Wales, out of 124,329 couples, there were 41,812 men and 62,523 women, who, it is to be presumed, either could not write, or wrote very imperfectly.

If the table for the year ending June 30, 1840, had shown results differing widely from those of the preceding year, it might reasonably have been suspected, that such returns were not likely to have become valuable and safe criterions of the comparative state of education, that they are drawn from too small a portion of the whole population, and are too much influenced by accident. Such, however, is not the case. A comparison of such table with a similar table in my second report, (it is stated,) will show a remarkably close correspondence in the results, not only for the whole kingdom, but in the metropolis, and every considerable group of counties. This will be evident from the following comparison of the mean proportion for the respective years:

	Mean proportion.	
	1839.	1840.
Metropolis,	18	18
Southeastern counties,	36	36
South Midland counties,	48	49
Eastern counties,	48	51
Southwestern counties,	39	38
Western counties,	47	46
North Midland counties,	41	42
Northwestern counties,	51	52
Yorkshire,	45	47
Northern counties,	31	32
Monmouthshire and Wales,	59	59
England and Wales,	41.59	41.92

It appears, that, tried by the returns of these two years, every county occupies nearly the same relative position, and many of them precisely the same. The coincidence sufficiently proves that the test is one which must not be disregarded, but may be found a valuable and safe criterion of the comparative state of education. But I must add, that it is only from a comparison much more extensive than that of the returns of two years, that the superiority or inferiority of particular portions of the kingdom can with fairness be inferred; and that I do not yet attempt to found any opinion of that kind upon such evidence only as is comprised in the foregoing statements.

NEW COMPOSITION FOR CAULKING SHIPS.

MR. JEFFREY, the inventor of a new composition for caulking and strengthening ships, of which experiments have been made on the Thames, having made known his invention to the Ordnance Department, experiments for testing its properties were made under their directions. On the 5th of May an appointment was made by Lieutenant-General Lord Bloomfield, with a large number of the officers of the Royal Artillery, to meet Mr. Jeffrey at the Observatory, near the Royal Military Repository at Woolwich, for the purpose of obtaining further information respecting the invention, and of the nature of the material used. A large number of distinguished officers assembled in the large room to hear the explanations relative to this important discovery. Mr. Jeffrey commenced his details by exhibiting pieces of copper covered with the composition, to show that it was equally applicable to the preservation of metals from the effects of salt water as it was to wood, preventing, when mixed with certain materials, the adhesion of barnacles or other shell-fish, so injurious to wood or to copper when not properly prepared, or which may, from some unexplained cause, have lost its power of protection from the attacks of marine insects and shell-fish. A block was next exhibited, fixed together, composed of three pieces, having on one side of the centre-piece about three-quarters of an inch of the composition, and on the other side a similar thickness of the substance at present generally used for vessels in the naval and mercantile service. This block had been submitted to a pressure of twenty-two tons, to show the effect that would be produced in very cold climates. The new composition under that pressure retained its softness, but the present caulking materials became as brittle as rosin, and could be broken into powder by the slightest strain or sharp blow upon it, which would have no effect upon the new composition. Two pieces of teak wood, which had before been joined together and tested with a strain of twenty-one tons by the hydraulic machine in the dockyard, were then exhibited, and it was astonishing to witness the strong and sound iron bolts of 1 1-2 inch in diameter, which had broken without the least symptom of the material with which the pieces were joined yielding to the great power

applied with the object of tearing them asunder. Another block, formed of three pieces joined together, so as to present angles which would be sure to give great force against the joinings in whatever position it might fall to the ground, was exhibited to show that it had received no injury, although it had been thrown from the top of the shears in the dockyard, seventy-six feet high, on the hard granite below. During the time Mr. Jeffrey was making these explanations, in order to show the quickness with which the new composition could be made available, he joined two pieces of wood with it, and another piece he broke and fixed again in its rough state, and in about fifteen minutes he submitted them for the purpose of being broken, which could only be effected by breaking with a hammer the solid wood on each side. Mr. Jeffrey concluded his details by expressing the obligations he felt under to the Lords of the Admiralty, to Captain Sir Francis Collier, Kt., C. B., and K. C. H., and Mr. Oliver Lang, Master Shipwright of Woolwich Dockyard, and the other master shipwrights forming the committee, without whose assistance he would not have been able to carry out his invention to the satisfactory extent he had done. Lord Bloomfield, on the part of himself and the officers of the Royal Artillery, who were all highly gratified with what they had witnessed, returned thanks to Mr. Jeffrey for the clear manner in which he had explained his invention, which appeared to be very valuable.

LACE WEAVING MACHINES.

A LATE Nottingham (English) Journal, gives the following interesting details of an important revolution which is about to be made in a branch of manufacture which employs a large number of persons in that vicinity : "A very serious and important change is now gradually commencing in the bobbin net trade. Hitherto the fancy lace trade branch, with but few exceptions, has been confined to the productions made from the traverse warp and the Levers' principle of machine ; the pushers being in general confined to Grecian, and bullet-hole nets, the latter of which scarcely ever got footing in the market. The introduction of straight-down nets, by Harvey and Bryant, from their little five-point machine, has effected wonders, and it is not too much to say, that it has realized to this district nearly three millions sterling, which in all probability would never have come in, as hand machines without that important discovery were completely beat out of the market, and must have wholly succumbed to power produced nets. After essaying unsuccessfully nearly nine years, with but slight exceptions, to produce fancy nets of good patterns, the circular bolt and comb machines have at length succeeded, and we have seen patterns produced from that principle of machine, both in warp-ground and linen-work, which equal the productions from the Levers' machine. This subject is of immense importance to the "town and trade of Nottingham," as the greater part of the machines at work in the town and suburbs are con-

structed upon the Levers' principle, which are principally propelled by hand, though in many instances moved by a rotatory apparatus. The circular machine is especially constructed to make traverse nets with facility, that is, where the bobbin threads cross each other diagonally in traversing transversely from selvage to selvage. Nets constructed upon this method will bear the ordeal of that great searcher of lace, the wash-tub, whereas nets untraversed, unless a considerable quantity of twist is inserted to tie the meshes, will not stand the test of the laundress. Hitherto every attempt to traverse the carriages in Levers' machines by rotatory apparatus, has been to a great extent unsuccessful; though several patents are now in force for traversing Levers' machines by rotatory apparatus, which methods have been several times described in our columns. The greater part of the Nottingham-made fancy nets are untraversed, the pusher-bars being wholly taken away from most of the machines, the fancy net being made by an extra quantity of guide-bars interwrapping, in various devices, the straight-down bobbin threads. At length the circular machines have overcome many impediments, and have succeeded in applying additional guide-bars wherewith to work in devices, and varied texture in the net, which has the advantage of being traversed. The most important part of this matter is now to come; hitherto the hand Levers' machines have had nearly a monopoly of this lucrative trade, which has been one of the main supports of this district. Now the power machines will come into competition, which are principally situated at Chard, Tiverton, Taunton, Barnstaple, Derby, and Chesterfield. It is true, there are power factories in Broad Marsh, Woolpack Lane, and Hockley, in this town, and at Carrington, Basford, Radford, and Lenton, in our immediate vicinity; but then they do not amount in the whole to much more than a third of the machines which are at work in the counties of Somerset, Devon, and Derby; as for Leicestershire, however extensive the bobbin net trade was in the year 1829, it has now become nearly extinct in that county. This subject, however unpleasant, we feel it our duty to revert to, and to put the machine owners upon the alert to meet the coming emergency."

BLAXLAND'S SUBMARINE PROPELLER.

AMONG the many inventions, the object of which has been to substitute for the old and avowedly disadvantageous system of paddle-wheels, some mechanical power which should act upon the stern of the vessel, and below the surface of the water, none has been hitherto formed more efficient in its working, or more completely overcoming the difficulties attending the problem, than that of Mr. Blaxland. The propeller itself is extremely simple in form, consisting of a variable number of arms radiating from the centre, the extremity of each arm being provided with a number of flat blades in close succession, and each being placed trans-

versely to and forming a slight angle with that immediately below it. The whole surface presented by each set of blades meets the water at the greatest depth in an angular position, and in rising or descending allows the water to pass through the small openings between the plates. One of the most important and remarkable points of the invention is the method of conveying the motion to the shaft of the propeller. This is effected through the medium of drums and pulleys connected by straps or ropes, the working of which is perfectly smooth and noiseless, — a great advantage compared with the system of spur wheels and pinions previously employed, the noise and tremulous motion from which is represented as intolerable. In bringing his invention before the public, Mr. Blaxland has followed a course, which, by establishing a direct comparison with the old system, settles the question of superiority in the most unanswerable way. His first application of the propeller was to the *Jane*, a paddle-wheel steamboat of three tons, with an engine of three-quarter horse power. Retaining the same engine, he moved this vessel at a speed of 7 1-2 miles per hour, obtaining an increase of 2 1-2 on its previous velocity. The propeller has been now applied in the same way to another steamboat, the *Swiftsure*, from which the paddle-wheels have been removed, while the engines, of 20-horse power each, are retained, and on Saturday last, at 12 o'clock, five of the Lords of the Admiralty, namely, Lord Haddington, Sir G. Cockburn, Sir W. H. Gage, Sir G. F. Seymour, and the Right Hon. Sir H. T. L. Corry, together with the Hon. S. Herbert, the Secretary, were received on board by Mr. Blaxland and Mr. Steinman, co-proprietor with the inventor of the patent. The vessel then proceeded down the river to within a short distance of Deptford Dockyard, and returned to Whitehall Stairs by a quarter-past 2 o'clock. During the whole trip their Lordships paid the closest attention to the working of the system, and informed themselves minutely on every particular. The apparatus, by which the proper degree of speed is communicated to the propeller, which, in this instance, was moved by ropes laid in grooves over the drums, appeared in particular to raise their admiration at the smoothness and quietness with which it worked, and on leaving the vessel their Lordships expressed themselves very much pleased with all they had seen. Mr. Blaxland was ordered to bring the propeller to the Admiralty in the course of the week. That which was used on the occasion was constructed with only two arms, the plates at each extremity being five in number. Notwithstanding the disadvantages presented by the build of the *Swiftsure*, which renders her name somewhat ironical, Mr. Blaxland has succeeded in increasing her speed from 7 1-3 miles to 9 per hour. An increase of speed such as this, which Mr. Blaxland in every instance promises, together with the other advantages of getting rid of such incumbrances, both in weight and bulk, as paddle-wheels and boxes, and the absence of all swell from the motion of the propeller, render it almost beyond a doubt that Mr. Blaxland will shortly see his invention generally adopted. It was expected that the *Jane* would also have been in attendance last Saturday, but this was prevented in consequence of her having been sent to Endfield, where the capabilities of the invention for canal navigation were to be tested. — *London Times* of May 30.

VOLTAICO-ELECTRICAL EXPERIMENTS IN WATER.

WE extract the following account of some curious and novel electrical experiments from a late London paper :

It had, heretofore, been imagined, that aqueform fluids, such as water, and the denser solid earth, had neither of them the capability of acting as conductors of electricity, and reconducting it to the battery after its passage. Dr. Franklin, having tried the former, sought to convey the electric matter down two rivers in America, and to regain the voltaic fluid at the point where the battery was erected, but after sedulous experiments, found it ineffectual. This, however, the two experiments of Thursday completely determined to be practicable, and Messrs. Wright and Bain, of the Polytechnic Institution, who are the operators and discoverers, having obtained permission of the Duke of Sussex to experiment on the broad sheet of the Serpentine River, they, at three o'clock, on Friday, June 3, demonstrated the truth of their experiments to a number of scientific gentlemen, among whom was Mr. Herapath, and others. The method of operation was thus : Near the house of the Humane Society, on the right hand of the river, was stationed a small voltaic battery, to which one end of two copper wires were affixed by the hands of the experimentalist, the remaining portion of the wires being conveyed, the one to the left, and the end just immersed in the water, and the other in like manner carried along the right path of the river up to the bridge which divides the park from Kensington Gardens ; the end of this latter wire was then permitted to drop into the water over the bridge, on the top of which, part of it was attached to a coil of wire and needle. The purport of the experiment was to show, that after the wire had been charged with the voltaic electricity, the fluid passed out from the ends of the wires and travelled through the whole intervening length of the Serpentine-water, a space of nearly a mile in length, returning to the battery it had set out from, and thereby completing a concentric circuit of about two miles and a half. The needle above mentioned, situated on the bridge as a test, abundantly proved by its deflections, the genuineness of the experiment ; and signal-flags stationed at that point, and communicating with another in a boat down at the other end of the river, demonstrated by their motions the velocity with which the aqueously-conducted electricity travelled. A second experiment, made upon parallel wires extended across the Serpentine, was equally felicitous in its proofs and results.

NEW LITHOGRAPHIC PROCESS.

AN account of the new application of Daguerre's discovery by Signor Rondoni is given in several foreign journals as an extract from a statement which has been published in the Memoirs of the Astronomer of the

Roman College. What the writer of the account states is to the following effect: "A drawing of the nebula of Orion had just been finished, when our lithographer, Signor Rondoni, called and communicated his important discovery. He informed us that he had been successful in his efforts to produce on stone the effect at first produced by Daguerre on metallic plates. He is in possession of a composition which enables him to place on stone photographic images; and he is able to print therefrom, by the ordinary methods of lithography, as many copies as can be obtained from a drawing by the hand on stone. In proof of this, he proceeded to put his process to the test on the nebula of Orion, and the experiment was quite successful." The first proofs were sent to M. Arago, who speaks in high terms of the process of M. Rondoni, and has presented the proofs to the Academy of Sciences at Paris. It thus appears that an important discovery has been made; but it is not distinctly stated that the figure of the nebula is transmitted directly to the stone. That it is so transmitted is the first impression produced on reading the account; but there are a few Italian words under the plate given of the first proof, from which it may be presumed that the Daguerreotype figure on the stone must be transmitted, not from the object itself, but from a drawing made in the usual way by the hand.

A NEW EDITION OF THE NEW TESTAMENT.

THE following announcement has appeared at Rome, under date of March 14: "Cardinal Angelo Mai has just completed a work, on which he has been occupied for upwards of ten years. It is an edition of the New Testament, with the variations of all the manuscripts existing in the principal libraries of Rome, and other parts of Italy, and with numerous notes, full of philological research. The text adopted by Cardinal Mai, as the basis of his edition, is that of the celebrated manuscript, No. 1209, in the library of the Vatican, which dates from the sixth century. At the suggestion of his Eminence, the Papal Government has resolved to publish, at its own expense, a fac-simile of this manuscript, which is in gilt uncial letters, and in close writing, (*scriptis continuis*,) that is to say, the words are not separated from each other by spaces. Our celebrated engraver, Ruspi, is to execute a copperplate engraving of this fac-simile, copies of which will be presented by the Holy See to all the Sovereigns in Christendom."

MONUMENT TO WALTER SCOTT.

AN engraving has just been published in London, from a drawing by the architect, Mr. Kemp, of the monument to the memory of Sir Walter Scott, at Edinburgh. It is a Gothic elevation, something in the style of what are called "crosses," and bears in some portions a resemblance of the great tower of the Cathedral at Antwerp. It is in style between the florid and the simple Gothic, having flying buttresses, finials, crockets, &c., and being ornamented with quatre feuil, and more minute embellishments. There are many tabernacles, but they are not occupied by figures. The statue of Sir Walter is placed in the centre, beneath the principal arch. It is robed in a flowing drapery, and stands on a pedestal.

CHRONOLOGY.

FOREIGN.

AUSTRALIA. By a census of the population of the colony taken on the 2d of March, 1841, the total number was given at 130,856.

Free population, males,	61,324
" females,	40,425
Bond, males,	23,844
females,	3,133

128,726

Employed in colonial vessels, 2,130

Total, 130,856

The total number of houses was 16,776, of which 6,375 were of stone or brick, and 10,401 of wood.

In the county of Cumberland, which includes the towns of Sydney, Paramatta, Liverpool, Campbell Town, and Richmond, there were 58,108 souls. Notwithstanding the large accession to the number of inhabitants occasioned by the continued arrival at Sydney and Port Philip of ships with emigrants, the demand throughout the colony for laborers was in November last greater than the supply. By the evidence of Capt. King,

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R. N., (a colonist of great local experience,) given before a committee of the legislative council in July, 1841, it appeared, that if from 10,000 to 12,000 working hands were to arrive in the colony during the succeeding twelve months, that number would, in his opinion, not exceed the wants of the colonists. The local government was fully apprised of the unexpectedly large influx of laborers to be expected from the emigration which had taken place from the United Kingdom; but it was known that, unless the stream were continued, it would be wholly inadequate. And, as respected sheep farming, it was doubtful whether industrious weavers from Paisley, or button-makers from Birmingham, were not more acceptable to the colonists than people brought up in, and exclusively devoted to, their own especial systems and branches of husbandry.

HAMBURGH, May 5. About 1 o'clock in the morning a fire broke out in the Deichstrasse, which raged for three days, involving the destruction of a large portion of this ancient city. At this period the tide was low, and the engines were unable to check the fire in its first out-

break. The flames immediately spread to neighboring warehouses, which, with their combustible contents, were soon destroyed, while the fire made further ravages in every direction. The Deichstrasse consists in great measure of warehouses; some of the principal merchants transact business there.

The wind was very high, and the fire spread before it with alarming rapidity. At 2 o'clock in the afternoon, the Nicolai church, one of the oldest and most celebrated in the city, was found to have taken fire. All the exertions of the firemen to save it proved unavailing, and it burned through the rest of the day. In this church, the same morning, much of the furniture had been deposited, which was saved from the earlier ravages of the flame. At the same time, the Hopfenmarkt, the principal market place of the city, in which were three of the principal hotels, and the Rodingsmarkt, and the Bonsenhalle, were entirely in flames. The same night the Senate House and the buildings around it were destroyed, as were the Bank, the old and new Exchanges. The vaults of the Bank, however, were uninjured, and we may here remark, that the fire produced no injurious effect on the public credit. It was understood that all the books of the Bank were saved, and as it was known that the specie was uninjured, no doubt was entertained of its sustaining itself.

Through the 6th the fire extended in such a way as to defy all the ordinary means of prevention. At times, it appeared as if the whole city would be destroyed. The Senate, which was constantly engaged in measures for the security of the city, began early on the morning of the 7th a series of explosions with a view of checking the progress of the flames. These measures proved partially successful, and a slight change of wind also tended to check the progress of the conflagration. Its course was thus directed, however, towards St. Peter's church, one of the finest buildings in Europe. The Neuerwall and Jungfraustieg, containing some of the finest buildings in the city, were also in part destroyed at this time. The exertions of the workmen saved the body of St. Peter's church, however. A train of artillery, sent from Hanover, arrived in the afternoon, and proceeded to batter down several buildings between it and the Jungfraustieg, in the hope of checking the progress of the flames in that direction.

The means thus taken proved in a measure efficacious; the fire had extended to the Binnean Alster, and on that side, of course, its ravages were stopped. On the morning of the 8th, the wind nearly ceased, and heavy showers of rain took place. These circumstances put an end to this tremendous conflagration.

We have the following statistical details of the destruction of property: Streets destroyed, 61; lanes do., 120; houses do. in streets, 1992; small houses in lanes, 498; cellars, 468; inhabitants dispossessed, 21,526. Churches destroyed, 3, namely, St. Peter, St. Nicolas, St. Gertrude. The value of the private buildings is estimated at 47,000,000 marks banco, in the mutual assurance effected by the municipalities, and the public buildings at 10,000,000, making together 57,000,000, equal to £3,363,000. The furniture and goods are estimated at £2,963,000, making the total value of the property £6,326,000. The amount insured in the foreign insurance companies on furniture and goods is estimated at 10,000,000 marks banco, or £741,000, but we are informed, on very good authority, that this item is so overrated, says a London paper, that it throws a doubt upon the accuracy of the statement of the aggregate loss sustained. The liabilities of the English insurance companies will not exceed, at the very utmost, £450,000; and, according to the most recent accounts, £420,000 is held as nearer the truth. It is further rendered perfectly certain, that even the latter account will be very materially reduced; for, as the researches into the ruins proceeded, considerable amounts of property were rescued daily, which was constantly increasing the salvage to the English companies.

The government intends to indemnify the native insurance offices, by bearing the whole, or such portion as they cannot make good of the general loss; but this indemnity will not extend to merchandise.

The utmost sympathy was excited in different parts of Europe and America on the receipt of this distressing intelligence, and large sums of money were subscribed for the relief of the sufferers.

LONDON, May 6. WILL OF THE LATE DUKE OF CLEVELAND, K. G. The will of the late Harry, Duke of Cleveland, has been just proved in the Prerogative Court, by the executors, Henry, Lord Brougham, and Vaux, Mr. Thomas Metcalf, and Mr.

G. B. Wharton. The personal property has been sworn under £1,000,000, upon which a stamp-duty of £13,000 has been paid. The property has been bequeathed principally to his family, consisting of the present duke, Lords William Poulett, and Harry Vane, Ladies Laura Meyrick, (who is abroad,) Arabella Arden, and Augusta Milbanke, with the exception of some legacies and annuities to his servants. Lord Brougham and his executors are bequeathed £1,500 each. The late duke's personal estate is the largest left by any peer of his elevated rank since the late duke of Sutherland, whose personal effects were sworn as amounting to more than £1,000,000, all sums beyond which amount are not subject to probate duty. The dowager duchess is handsomely provided for under the late duke's will.

LONDON, May 10. THE HON. COMPANY'S STEAM-FRIGATE ACBAR. On Sunday at noon this splendid war-steamer left her anchorage at Gravesend, bearing the pendant of Commodore Pepper, of the Indian navy, who will assume the command of all the Company's ships-of-war now serving in China, under Admiral Sir W. Parker. The Acbar is a steam-frigate of the first class, armed with two eight-inch guns, and four long thirty-two-pounders, with a complement of 160 men; carrying five boats, on two of which are mounted brass twelve-pound howitzers. The engines are of the collective power of 350 horses, manufactured by Napier of Glasgow, and of a very superior description. She has four copper boilers of about seven tons each. The perfect and beautiful arrangements of the engine-room, the care which is every where observable for the health and comfort of the firemen and the crew in general, the cleanliness and beautiful adaptation of every part to the uses for which they are intended, reflect the highest credit on the parties concerned. The officers' accommodations are very superior; and the apartments allotted to the Commodore are of such a magnificent description, as would reconcile even a landsman to a life at sea. The armory is filled up with 100 percussion muskets, pistols, cutlasses, and musketoons, &c., the whole in beautiful order, and presenting a most warlike appearance. The liberality and taste displayed by the Hon. the Court of Directors in fitting out the Acbar is worthy the highest praise; especially in the extensive and valuable library supplied for the use of the officers and

crew, who seem fully to appreciate the advantages of serving their Hon. masters. The Acbar carries 500 tons of coal, which with a consumption of a ton an hour, will enable her to steam twenty successive days. A few such efficient vessels, and we shall soon hear that our celestial friends have been visited with a lucid interval. The Acbar made her passage from Gravesend to Falmouth, a distance of 370 miles, in 36 hours, which gives an average speed of more than 10 miles an hour. This is the best proof of her capabilities, and renders it highly probable that she will arrive in Singapore in the short space of eighty-five days. The quiet and orderly manner in which the men conducted themselves, and the perfect ease and readiness with which every order was executed, excited the admiration of all those who enjoyed the pleasure of the trip.

LOSS OF BRITISH STEAM-PACKET MEDINA, May 11. The steam-ship Medina, Captain Burney, one of the line of British West-India packets, was wrecked at night off Turks Island, on the north-eastern reef. The passengers, stores, mails, and furniture were saved, but the vessel bilged and became a total loss. The steam-ship Tweed, of the same line of packets, was at Turks Island, and received the passengers and mails.

LONDON, May 30. This afternoon, while the Queen, with Prince Albert, was taking her afternoon drive, an attempt was made to take her life. A young man, who had previously been noticed standing with his back against the brick wall skirting the gardens of Buckingham Palace, was observed to advance towards the carriage road, along which the royal cortege was passing, and upon the carriage approaching the spot at which he stood, he was seen by a constable named Tanner, to advance within three yards of the carriage, and at the same instant draw out, apparently from his waistcoat pocket, a pistol. Tanner instantly rushed towards him, for the purpose of knocking it out of his hand, seeing that it was aimed at her Majesty, but at the moment he seized him the pistol went off, fortunately without injuring either her Majesty's person, or that of Prince Albert. The royal carriage, which was at this moment of the attempt proceeding at a quick pace, continued its course towards Buckingham Palace, and the prisoner was conveyed to the lodge adjoining, where he was searched by Mr. Russell, the in-

spector on duty, who found in his pockets a bullet and some powder, as well as the pistol, which was still warm, and affording convincing proof of its recent discharge. At the same time that this account was published, it was also made known, that, on the day before, while the Queen was riding, this same person, standing near the same spot, had drawn a pistol, apparently intending to fire upon her. She had been apprised of the circumstance, but made no alteration in her daily course of proceeding, and took her ride as usual, only declining to be accompanied by any of the ladies of her suite.

On investigation, it appeared that the prisoner's name was John Francis. He was a young man, of about twenty years of age, with no appearance of insanity, and apparently with no particular object in view. It has not appeared that he was connected with any political society, or that he had any accomplices. After his examination at the home office, he was committed to Bridewell.

The utmost indignation at the attempt was manifested in every quarter, and addresses were voted by both Houses of Parliament, and several other public bodies, congratulating the Queen on her escape.

LONDON, June 3. Information was received from Paris, that a telegraphic despatch from Marseilles had communicated further intelligence from Affghanistan, in anticipation of the arrival of the overland mail. This intelligence was such as to excite anxiety, and deep curiosity for the arrival of the mail itself. The British regiment at Ghuzni, or Ghizni, had surrendered on condition that they should be conducted safely to Cabul, ignorant apparently of the fall of that post. On the other hand, General Follenck had obtained command of the Khyber Pass. General Sale had made a successful sortie from Jellalabad.

In the next Number of the Chronicle we shall be able to give fuller details of these transactions.

EARTHQUAKE IN THE WEST INDIES, May 7. About five o'clock in the afternoon of this day, was felt the first of several terrific shocks of an earthquake, which was attended with the most disastrous consequences. It extended over a large surface, including the whole of the island of Hayti. The most easterly point at which it was perceived was the town of Guayama in Porto Rico, the most westerly was Kingston in Jamaica;

these cities are about 1,300 miles apart. Guayama is near the parallel of 18 N. latitude. We have no accounts of any shocks felt on land at any southern point; but the concussion was distinctly felt at the Caicos, which lie four degrees further north.

These places were at the extreme parts of the shock, and felt comparatively little of its effects. The island of Hayti lies directly in the middle of the district over which it spread, and there, particularly in the northern and western parts, its ravages were terrific. The city of Cape Haytien, (formerly Cape Française, or Cape Henry,) situated on the northern shore of the island, was entirely destroyed. It was a handsome town, built principally of stone, and containing about 12,000 inhabitants, being the capital of the northern part of the island, and the principal depot of its agricultural produce, and one of the chief commercial cities. The accounts agree in stating that this beautiful city was at once reduced to a mass of ruins, only two buildings being left standing. The day happened to be a market day, on which numbers of persons and animals from the surrounding country were in the city. It is supposed that seven or eight thousand persons were killed at once by the falling ruins. So sudden was the catastrophe, according to the account of an eye-witness, that hardly three seconds were allowed them to escape from the houses. Thousands were buried alive, and no relief at hand. This was not the end of the distresses of the devoted city. Many of the officers of government having lost their lives in the shock, the surviving inhabitants, free from the restraint of law, gave themselves up at once to pillage of such valuables as they could obtain from the ruins. The city being a depot for all the articles imported for the supplies of the interior, an immense quantity of merchandise was generally kept on hand for that purpose. At the period of the dreadful visitation, the supplies were abundant, and the stores crowded with goods. These at once were seized upon by the marauders. Hundreds of individuals pouring in from the country, commenced overturning the crumbling ruins, and drawing forth from thence all the merchandise and valuables of whatever kind they could lay hold of, despatched the same to their different hiding places. Opposition was for some time useless,

and a summary execution was necessarily resorted to by the authorities to strike a salutary terror. Many of the marauders were shot, and now, to crown the whole with the extremity of horror, a slow fire, which had arisen and had been gradually creeping onwards from the time of the catastrophe, spread at once into a general conflagration, consuming what had escaped the former calamity and the sacrilegious hands of pillage. This conflagration, in its progress, reached a powder magazine, the explosion of which added to the other horrors, with which the naked and starving survivors were surrounded. A violent storm of rain extinguished the fire, but another few days after completed the destruction of the first.

Many of the smaller towns in the northern and western parts of the island suffered terribly, though we find no mention of other disasters so awful as those of Cape Haytien. Santiago, an inland town, formerly of some note, but greatly reduced by the devastations of the servile war, was entirely destroyed; about 200 persons lost their lives out of a population of 6,000. La Vega, and St. Osero, small interior places, met a similar fate. In Port au Prince, the capital, in the south-western part of the island, two severe shocks were felt; but although almost every house was somewhat injured, none were overthrown, and no lives were lost. The city is chiefly built of wood; to this fact is its preservation attributed. At St. Mark and Gonaives, farther north, on the western coast, the shock was more severe, yet but few lives were lost. Porto Plata, east of Cape Haytien, on the northern coast, suffered severely, but there was no loss of life. Porto Paix and St. Nicolas, (la Mole,) on the northwestern part, were almost entirely destroyed. St. Domingo, the capital of the former Spanish part of the island, situated on the southeastern side, was greatly injured, many of the dwellings being rendered untenable, but we do not learn that any lives were lost. The river Orama, on which the city stands, was raised eight feet above its usual height.

Besides these places which we have mentioned, St. Louis du Nord, Port Dauphin, Limbe, Port Margot, Borgne, La Grande Riviere du Nord, Laxavon, and Altamira, are named as having suffered seriously. The shock was felt, with more or less severity, in all parts of the island.

Some of the various accounts which have reached us bear the marks of the exaggerations of fear and rumor, but we believe that the accuracy of the statements which we have given may, in general, be relied upon.

The President at once ordered the physicians and surgeons of the hospital at Port au Prince to proceed immediately to Cape Haytien, for the succor of the wounded there. The Chamber of Representatives, on the recommendation of the President of Hayti, has passed a law to exempt the inhabitants of the districts devastated by the recent earthquake, from taxes. The Senate, at its sitting on the 23d May, concurred.

The shocks of the earthquake continued at intervals for several days after the 7th. In some places, as many as forty distinct shocks were enumerated. On the same day, about 3 o'clock in the afternoon, slight shocks were felt in different parts of the states of Louisiana and Mississippi. On the 21st of May, a slight shock was felt in the island of St. Bartholomew. This is one of the leeward islands, lying about 250 miles to the east of Guayama, the most easterly point of the shock of the 7th.

PARIS, May 8. A distressing accident took place this afternoon at Meudon, on the Versailles Railway, of the left bank of the Seine. There had been a grand fête at Versailles, a play of the great waterworks, fireworks, &c., and a vast number of persons were traversing the railroads. The train to which the accident occurred consisted of two engines and eighteen carriages. It left Versailles at half-past five for Paris. As it passed through Meudon, the first engine was suddenly arrested and thrown off the track by the breaking off of an axle, this was with its tender broken in pieces by the second engine, and the three first passenger cars were forced upon the wreck of the engines in one mass. These cars were crowded with passengers, having a large number on the top, and the condition of those within was rendered more desperate, by the doors being locked, according to the usage prevalent on some of the European railroads. The fire of the two engines, the coke from the two tenders, and the deposits of oil and grease for the engines and cars were thrown into one heap, and the three carloads of passengers upon the same pile. The consequence was that 42 passengers

who were inside the three cars, some of whom were females, were so dreadfully burnt before they could be extricated, that they were not recognizable. The train, which was very heavily loaded, appears to have been travelling with an unusual degree of velocity. The injury was apparently greater from the fire than from the shock. Among the killed was the celebrated circumnavigator, Admiral Dumont d'Urville, with his wife and child. They were so mutilated as to be identified with difficulty. Mr. Dumonsteir, Professor of Phrenology, who was attached to the last French Exploring Expedition, recognized M. d'Urville's skull, of which he had frequently taken casts. Several of the bodies could not be recognized. A large quantity of jewelry and other similar articles were sifted from the ashes left after the disaster.

BERLIN, May 25. Conferences, at which his Majesty will preside, are to be held in a few days, respecting a new law as to censorship, which is to be founded on the most liberal principles. Under the name of the author every thing may be printed, which does not evidently manifest wicked or dangerous views. A board of censorship, consisting of the most enlightened and judicious men, are to decide on the abuses of the freedom of the press in the first and last instance.

BERLIN, May 28. The ministerial paper, published to-day, contains a circular letter from M. Van Rochow, the Minister of the Interior, to the Chief Presidents of the provinces, enjoining them to send in general accounts of the periodical press and daily literature in the provinces. The minister observes, on the great importance of the periodical press, which has become indispensable to the people of all classes; and remarks, that the contents and the tone of the journals of a province, afford a safe clue to the intellectual proficiency of the inhabitants; and that a view of the collective periodical literature of all the provinces would furnish a striking feature of the intellectual physiognomy of the nation. For the purpose of attaining this object, the presidents are directed to furnish the minister with a general review of the periodical literature of their respective provinces. As this is a new field of inquiry, experience must teach the best mode of prose-

cuting it. It may, however, be useful to attend to the following fundamental laws in drawing up the reports. All our journals are to be considered as objects of this report, which require a license from the ministry. They may divide into such as are political, scientific, industrial, or legal, (namely, contrary to official ordinances, &c.) The report is to state the character and tendency of the journals; their value and usefulness; how many printed; their circulation in the provinces, and the class of readers. Accounts of the foreign journals are to be added, giving an estimate of the number of copies circulated in the provinces, and among what class of readers. This detailed statement is required in the first report only; after which an annual report, to be made in February, will state the changes that have taken place in the course of the year.

BUENOS AYRES. The Federal Government, (General Rosas's) has for a succession of months been engaged in attempting to put a stop to the insurrection raised by the Unitarios, who had retired to the northern provinces, where they were assisted by General Rivera, of the Banda Oriental, [see Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 523.] Recently, Rosas's forces, under General Oribe, have obtained a series of decided advantages. The receipt of this intelligence in the city of Buenos Ayres was productive of the most disastrous consequences. Some of the members of the society of the Masorca, which is strongly attached to Rosas, elated at the news, began a series of public assassinations of the Unitarios, which lasted from the 11th of April, the anniversary of Rosas's installation, to the 21st, when, in obedience to an order of the dictator, who signified his abhorrence of the proceeding, the massacre entirely ceased. Meanwhile, a hundred and fifty or two hundred, alleged to belong to the party of the Unitarios, had lost their lives. By an order of government issued some time before, all the property of the Unitarios was confiscated for the use of government, comprising a large part of the real estate in the province. A decree of a few weeks before, opening the communication with the interior, forbade the Unitarios to leave the country, denying them passports. Many of them, however, have escaped secretly.

DOMESTIC.

CONCORD, N. H. The Legislature met, and was organized. Hon. Josiah Quincy was chosen President of the Senate, and Samuel Swasey President of the House. The House consists of about 190 democrats, and 55 whigs.

The votes for Governor were counted on the next day. It appeared that Mr. Hubbard, (democrat,) who had 26,381 votes, was chosen. Enos Stevens, (whig,) had 12,234 votes; John H. White, (democrat) had 5,509, and Samuel Hoyt, 2,812. The whole number of votes was 48,104.

NEW YORK, JUNE 27. The water of the Croton Aqueduct was let into the great reservoir at Yorkville this day in the presence of 20,000 people, who had assembled to witness an event promising so much advantage to the city. On the 22d inst. the water had been admitted into the aqueduct at Croton, but the sluices at the receiving reservoir were left unopened till some public notice could be taken of the event. On the 4th of July, the water is to be admitted into the distributing reservoir.

The main trunk of this aqueduct consists of an immense mass of masonry, six feet and a half wide, nine feet high, and forty miles long, formed of walls three feet thick, cemented into solid rock. But this water channel, gigantic as it is, is far from being all the work. The dam across the Croton, which retains the water in a grand reservoir, is a mound of earth and masonry, forty feet high and seventy feet wide at the bottom, and has connected with it many complicated but perfect contrivances to enable the engineer to have complete control over the mighty mass of water. The river, thus thrown back toward its source, will form a lake of five hundred acres, which will retain a supply for emergencies of some thousand millions of gallons, and also offer, as a collateral advantage, many picturesque sites for country seats upon the woody points which will jut out into its smooth basin. A tunnel leads the water from this reservoir into the Aqueduct, and eleven more of these subterranean passages occur before reaching Harlem River, having an aggregate length of seven eighths of a mile, and many of them being cut through the solid rock. At intervals of a mile, ventilators are constructed in the form of towers of white marble, which give to the water that ex-

posure to the atmosphere, without which it becomes vapid and insipid; and these dazzling turrets mark out the line of the Aqueduct to the passengers upon the Hudson.

The streams which intersect the line of the structure are conveyed under it in stone culverts, the extremities of which afford the engineers an opportunity of displaying their architectural taste. Sing-Sing Creek, with its deep ravine, is crossed by a bridge of a single elliptical arch of 88 feet span, and a hundred feet above the stream. Its unusually perfect workmanship was proved by its having settled but one inch after the centres were removed. The view of its massive grace from the narrow valley beneath, is one of the most striking points upon the line. Sleepy Hollow, well known to the readers of imaginative lore, is spanned by a series of graceful arches.

The bridge crossing Harlem River has been the subject of much controversy. The admirers of magnificent symmetry and perfection, and those interested in preserving the navigation of that stream, have warmly advocated the erection of a bridge, over which the water might pass upon its regular level; while the friends of more measured economy recommended a lower and cheaper structure, to which pipes should descend and rise therefrom after the manner of an inverted syphon. The plan finally adopted is that of a high bridge, but still with its surface ten feet below the usual grade, which falls fourteen inches to the mile. It is a quarter of mile long, one hundred and sixteen feet above high water, and its estimated cost exceeds three-quarters of a million. Across this the water is conveyed in huge iron pipes, protected from the frost by a covering of earth, four feet deep. Near Manhattanville is a tunnel, a quarter of a mile long, through the hill at that place; and its valley is crossed by pipes descending one hundred and five feet. Clendenning Valley is passed at an elevation of forty feet, and arches of appropriate size, upon the lines of the streets, leave symmetrical carriage-ways and foot-paths.

Great attention has been paid to the two great Reservoirs of this stupendous aqueduct. The receiving reservoir, at Yorkville, thirty-eight miles from the dam at Croton River, is in two divisions, both covering a space of thirty-five acres, capable of containing one hundred and sixty millions of gallons. It is enclosed by granite walls of solid masonry, roughly

finished. The bottom of the basin is the natural soil.

The distributing reservoir, at Murray's Hill, in Forty-Second street, is a much finer and more expensive work. It is nearly square, and covers an area of about five acres. The bottom is made of puddled clay, as smooth, hard, and water-tight as marble itself. The area is 440 feet square at the base, and is divided in the centre by a wall of granite 19 feet thick at the bottom, and 4 at the top. It is surrounded by a wall also of granite, composed of three distinct columns of solid mason work. The outer column is five feet thick; the second six, and the third or inner one a lining of granite, about 15 inches in depth, placed upon a concrete masonry above 30 feet thick at the base. From the outside to the middle wall, the thickness of neither included, the distance is 14 feet; and from the extreme of the outer wall to the inner angle of the third, is 60 feet, the three walls uniting at the top. At a distance of 10 feet from each other, are thick cross walls with solid arches, thus binding the whole into one solid, imperishable mass. From the top of the northeast cornice to the level of the street, the distance is 56 feet. The depth of the reservoir is 40 feet; and it will contain water to the depth of 36 feet, or about twenty-two millions of gallons, as computed a few days since by James Renwick, Jr., one of the engineers employed on the work.

At the east end of the division wall a well has been sunk to the depth of 50 feet, communicating with a sewer below, and forming a waste-wier for the discharge of the surplus water, when it rises in the reservoir above the height of 36 feet. At the bottom of the well is laid a block of granite, weighing seven tons, and still further, to break the fall of the overflowing stream, and to prevent it from wearing away the stone, water to the depth of six feet rests permanently at the bottom. From the well, waste water is conveyed by a sewer nearly a mile, to the North River.

The whole work is now completed, with the exception of the high bridge. The bridge will occupy two years more, but a temporary pipe has been laid over the river upon the coffer-dams of the bridge, which will afford us a supply of water for two or three years, until the completion of the entire work. Its estimated cost, owing to the changes of plan, rise of labor and provisions, &c., has risen from five to twelve millions of dollars, a

great sum abstractly considered, but a trifling one compared with the benefits resulting from the work.

When the water was first admitted, the water commissioners, with their chief and principal assistant engineers, accompanied it in its passage down, sometimes in their barge, "The Croton Maid of Croton Lake," and sometimes on the surface of the aqueduct above.

We found, they say in their report, that the water arrived at the waste gates at Sing Sing, a distance of eight miles, in five hours and forty-eight minutes; here we suffered the water to flow out at the waste gates until 12 o'clock, M., when the gates were closed on a volume of about two feet in depth. The water then flowed on and arrived at Mill River waste gates at a quarter past 3 o'clock, a distance of five miles.

It was there drawn off through the waste gates for half an hour, and was, at quarter before 4 o'clock, allowed to flow on. We continued to precede it on the land, and to accompany it in our boat in the aqueduct, to Younkers, a distance of ten miles, where it arrived at half-past ten o'clock at night. Here we permitted it to flow at this waste gate until a quarter past six o'clock in the morning, when the gates were closed, and it flowed on and arrived at the waste gate on the Van Courtlandt farm, a distance of five miles and a half, in three hours and a quarter. Here we permitted it to flow out of the waste gates for two hours, when the gates were closed, and it flowed, in two hours and twenty minutes, a distance of about four miles and three quarters, down to the Harlem River, where the Commissioners and their chief engineer emerged to the surface of the earth in their subterranean barge, at one o'clock, June 23d.

The average current or flow of the water has been thus proved to be forty-five minutes to the mile, a velocity greater, we are happy to say, than the calculations gave reason to expect.

It is with great satisfaction we have to report, that the work at the dam, on the line of aqueduct proper, the waste gates, and all the appendages of this great work, so far as tried by this performance, have been found to answer most perfectly the objects of their construction.

RHODE ISLAND. During the past month, statements have been published by some of the parties concerned in the recent movements in this State, which throw additional light upon some points

of them. On the 26th of May, Mr. Dorr, the Governor under the "Suffrage" Constitution, published an address to the people, explanatory of his course on the 17th and 18th of May, [see Mon. Chron. p. 237.] He was induced, he says, to leave his head-quarters and retire from the controversy because he found his friends were rapidly leaving him, and he was unwilling to sacrifice in a useless contest those who remained firm. Besides this, Sheriff Anthony, in whose house he was, requested him not to make it the scene of a hostile encounter. Under these circumstances, "with a regret for which there are no words, I withdrew from head-quarters to the town of Cumberland."

The following extracts from this address embrace the most important parts of it, after the statement of facts:

"Being engaged on Tuesday, the 17th, in the preparations for the attack on the Arsenal, my attention was diverted from the proceedings of Mr. Anthony and others, relating to any compromise. At two o'clock in the afternoon of that day, Mr. Anthony addressed a company of more than one hundred persons, near his house, to the effect that the proposed military movement in the evening was unnecessary, as a compromise would probably be effected. Hearing his remarks, I at once asked him, in their presence, if he were attempting to countermand the orders which had been given?"

"He excused himself; and I then briefly addressed those who were present, and informed them that I knew of no such compromise, and called upon them to remain true to their Constitution."

"In the evening, Philip Allen and Crawford Allen, both near relations, called upon me on the subject of the existing difficulties. Mr. P. Allen called first, and endeavored to prevent the employment of force, as contemplated, to take possession of the public property. Mr. C. Allen called afterwards, at a late hour, and offered several plans for adjusting the controversy between the two parties. Every one of them appearing to involve the surrender of the Constitution, I replied to him that they were inadmissible."

"Next morning Mr. C. Allen called upon me again, after the arrangements for defence had been made by me, and our affairs had assumed the appearance which I have described in my former communication. He stated, that he had come as a

friend and relative to offer me a conveyance from our head-quarters, should I determine to retire. He came without my request or knowledge of his intentions. He stated, in the hearing of Mr. Anthony, and others, that he believed that the Charter Government entertained pacific intentions, and would not further harass the officers of the People's Government; but he added, that he spoke for himself, and not by authority. I recollect no mention by him of any compromise at this time. No importance was attached by me to this statement, relative to the disposition of the Charter Government. I have already explained the grounds of my determination to retire. The conveyance offered to me was accepted, because a friend in North Providence, also a devoted friend of the people's cause, who had made a similar previous offer, had not returned. From the manner in which these facts are stated in Mr. Anthony's letter, many may be led to infer motives and conduct on my part, of which I am incapable. I have made no compromise of the rights of others, or of my own."

"In the assurance that I have never compromised your rights, and have returned to friends and opponents a uniform reply, adverse to the abandonment of the principles of popular sovereignty and of equal rights involved in the support of your Constitution, allow me to add, that I have never compromised my own right to serve your cause. Having sincerely devoted to that cause all the abilities I possess, and having in your service sustained the loss of all things but honor, I may safely commit to you, fellow-citizens, my vindication from all unjust or ungenerous imputations, either upon my motives or conduct."

"I cannot conclude this communication without reminding you, that your Constitution, being founded in right and justice, cannot be overthrown by a failure of arms, or by the resignation of those elected to office under it; and that the duty to maintain it has not been affected by recent events."

Governor King, about the 1st of June, at which time Mr. Dorr was in Connecticut, asked from the Governor of that state permission to arrest him, if found within its borders. Governor Cleveland refused to comply. The Governors of New York and Massachusetts, in reply to similar requests, granted the leave required. A reward of \$1,000 was subsequently offered by the Government of the

state to any person who should arrest him.

Some arrests have been made of persons subordinately concerned in the suffrage movement; Mr. H. Smith, the Secretary of State under the new organization, was arrested on a charge of treason, and a man named Weatherby, for an attempt to steal some cannon in the town of Warren. The State Legislature met at Newport on the 21st of June.

The Legislature under the Suffrage Constitution adjourned, it will be remembered, to the fourth of July, [Mon. Chron. p. 235.] Many of its members have since resigned. About the twentieth of June, however, measures were seen to be in progress among some of the adherents of the suffrage party, which indicated the establishment of an armed force in Chepachet, in the northern part of the state, probably with some view to a meeting of that body. Munitions of war were seized in many places, and transported thither.

At this place Dorr collected such forces as he could, prepared to make a stand on a fortified hill and call together his Legislature in the village. His whole force amounted to about 700 armed men, most of whom, it was said, were not citizens of Rhode Island. They were intrenched on Arcott's Hill, and here he joined them himself on the 24th of June from New York.

Meanwhile, in the Assembly a bill had been introduced and passed, providing that a Convention should be called to frame a constitution for the state. All persons who have hitherto been permitted to vote, and all citizens of the United States resident in Rhode Island for three years being authorized to vote for delegates. Hearing of Dorr's warlike designs, the Legislature adjourned on the 25th to Providence, that they might be near the scene of danger, and on that day martial law was proclaimed by Governor King, agreeably to their order. The militia had been called out the day before, and were gathering in large numbers in Providence.

On the 26th, about 3,000 troops were assembled, who were put under the command of General William Gibbs McNeill, who at once took active measures for the suppression of the insurrection. On the 27th, he sent two brigades to take position in the rear of the insurgents, and cut off their retreat into Connecticut, while the rest of his forces attacked their camp

in front. On the night of the 27th, the advanced guard of 500 men quartered at Greenville, about eight miles from Chepachet.

On that night, however, Dorr, finding it impossible to resist the force brought against him, broke up his encampment and fled, and the next morning the forces of the government took possession of his intrenchments, almost without opposition. There were no lives lost on either side in the attack, and only two persons wounded.

There was, of course, great excitement throughout the State at these proceedings; but Dorr was not supported by the mass of the suffrage party, which, on the contrary, expressed itself satisfied with the provisions of the bill which had passed the Assembly. In a slight commotion at Pawtucket, the military were attacked by a mob, and fired upon them in return, killing one man. This is the only life lost, thus far, in the transaction.

UNITED STATES CONGRESS.

On the 1st of June, at the time of the publication of the last Number of the Chronicle, we spoke of the Apportionment Bill, the Remedial Justice Bill, the proposed tariffs on imports, and the naval and military appropriation bills, as still awaiting the action of Congress, although each of them had occupied the attention of that body.

The first of these subjects only, was so far matured as to become a law during the past month. The Senate, after a long discussion of the apportionment bill, (see p. 240,) amended it in its most important feature, raising the ratio from 50,179, at which number the House had fixed it, to 70,680, thus reducing the proposed number of Representatives to 223. The bill was also amended in the Senate by the addition of a clause granting an additional member to each State whose population is such that, after the regular process of apportionment had been made, there is a remainder larger than one half the ratio. In this form the bill passed the Senate on the 10th of June. It was at once sent down to the House. That body, after a day's debate, refused on the 14th to concur in either of the Senate amendments. The Senate the next day voted to insist on both amendments, and in this stage, the bill having come into the House a third time, it receded, and adopted both these amendments. The vote on the

ratio was 113 to 103; on the "fraction amendment," 110 to 102. The bill, as it passed, has two features, which have never before been introduced into the apportionment bills; the provision requiring every state to introduce the district system in choosing members of Congress, and that introducing the representation of fractions, which we have described under its provisions. The members of the House will be distributed thus during the next ten years.

Maine,	7
New Hampshire,	4
Massachusetts,	10
Rhode Island,	2
Connecticut,	4
Vermont,	4
New York,	34
New Jersey,	5
Pennsylvania,	24
Delaware,	1
Maryland,	6
Virginia,	15
North Carolina,	9
South Carolina,	7
Georgia,	8
Alabama,	7
Louisiana,	4
Mississippi,	4
Tennessee,	11
Kentucky,	10
Ohio,	21
Indiana,	10
Illinois,	7
Missouri,	5
Arkansas,	1
Michigan,	3

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The bill to provide further remedial justice in the Courts of the United States, [Mon. Chron. p. 240,] has been debated at several times in the Senate, but no vote has been taken upon it.

On the 3d of June, the committee of ways and means in the House, to which had been referred the project of the Secretary of the Treasury, [Mon. Chron. p. 240,] reported a bill for the raising of revenue. The House had thus before it the bill reported by the committee on manufactures, the minority report of the same committee, which did not recognize the principle of protection, the bill drawn up by the Secretary of the Treasury, and that of the committee of ways and means. By the provisions of the "Compromise Act," under which the national revenues have been collected since 1833, all duties levied under it were to be reduced on the

1st of July, 1842, to twenty per cent. The time remaining before that period to mature a tariff bill was so short, that under the direction of the committee of ways and means a bill was reported, to provide for the revenue of the country while the details of a new tariff were arranged. It provided that the present duties should be continued till the 1st of August. It also provided, that this continuance should not prevent the distribution among the states of the proceeds of the public lands. By a provision of the distribution act, as it passed at the last session, no distribution was to be made if at any time the duties on imports were raised above the scale indicated in the "compromise tariff." The closing proviso of the bill extending that tariff to August repealed this prohibition so far as this bill was concerned. Great opposition was made to this clause of the bill, but it passed the House without amendment, on the 15th of June, yeas 116, nays 103.

[The Senate varied the form of this closing proviso, by inserting in place of it a clause postponing the action of the distribution act till the 1st of August; by its own provisions, that act would take effect on the 1st of July. Thus modified, the bill passed the Senate on the 23d, and was concurred in on the 25th of the month. On the 29th, however, it was returned to Congress with the Executive veto, the President being unwilling to sanction the distribution of the proceeds of the lands, excepting as provided in the act of the last session.]

The House then recurred to the subject of a permanent tariff, which occupied it without any decision to our latest accounts, the 25th of June.

The naval and military appropriation bills have been detained, as was the apportionment bill, by a disagreement of the two Houses on their provisions. As these bills were reported in the House by the committees on the navy and the army, \$3,165,000 were appropriated for the increase, wear and tear of ships, and the pay of officers and men in the navy, through the year, and \$1,477,700 for the pay of the army. When the bills were discussed in committee of the whole House, it became evident that there was a strong desire, in some quarters, to reduce the amount of each of these appropriations, under a conviction that the expenses of each branch of the service had swelled to too large an amount, and that there was great profusion and waste in the expenditure.

Various amendments were therefore moved, proposing different degrees of reduction in the appropriations, and on these amendments long debates ensued as to the necessity of the reduction of the two services, and on the proper way of effecting such reduction. The naval appropriation bill was accordingly amended by a reduction of the appropriation for the navy to \$2,335,000, and the introduction of a proviso that the number of officers in the navy should not be increased after the present time, but should be reduced as rapidly as possible to the number in each grade on the 1st of January, 1841. In this form the bill passed on the 23d of May. The army appropriation bill was also amended by a proviso, that the recruiting service should cease till the army was reduced to 6,000 men, the basis of the army by the law of 1821, and also by a proviso cutting off one regiment of dragoons after Sept. next. Several of the separate clauses of appropriation were also reduced. These changes were not effected without earnest debate and strong opposition, and they passed by very small majorities. Thus amended, however, the bill passed the House on the 7th of June.

In the Senate, a large majority disapproved of the reduction of the army and navy in this manner. The finance committee reported several amendments to the naval appropriation bill, which restored many of the clauses which had been struck out in the House, and, in particular, raised the appropriation for the pay of officers and men to \$2,800,000. After considerable discussion, the most important of these amendments were adopted. The bill passed as amended, and was sent back to the House on the 17th of June. Immediately after, the committee on military affairs reported a bill providing for the reduction of the army from the existing basis, by a reduction of the size of the companies, proposing to make the army consist of 8,884 men, a reduction of about 2,000. In view of this bill, the finance committee raised the appropriation for the army nearly to what it had been, as reported by the military committee of the House, before the amendments of that body. The Senate concurred in these amendments to the army appropriation, and sent the bill down to the House to the 23d of June.

The question of an international copyright, which had excited for some months some share of public attention, was introduced into Congress by several memorials praying for the passage of such an act, and remonstrances against it. No action was taken in either House on the subject, but it was announced in the Senate that the committee on the judiciary, to whom the subject was referred, did not favor the scheme, and would report against it, when they reported on the subject.

A bill passed both branches, and received the signature of the President, re-funding to the State of Maine, from the National Treasury, the expenses she incurred in the winter of 1838, '9 in calling out her militia to repel the trespasses on the disputed territory.

On the 13th of the month a resolution was offered the House, similar to that in force during the last session, prohibiting any member from speaking more than one hour in debate, either in committee of the whole, or in the House. The resolution was strongly opposed as an infringement of the liberty of debate, but it passed by a vote of 120 to 84, and it has had a happy effect in checking the loquacity of speakers, and restricting debate within reasonable limits.

The health of Mr. Southard, the Senator from New Jersey, who has officiated as President pro tempore of the Senate since Mr. Tyler's elevation to the Presidency, compelled him, on the 31st of May, to resign that office. He retains his seat in the Senate. This resignation made the selection of another President pro tempore necessary, and on a second ballot Mr. Mangum of North Carolina was elected. Mr. Mangum had 23 votes, Mr. Bayard of Delaware 13, Mr. King of Georgia 3, and two scattering votes were thrown. A vote of thanks to the late President was moved and passed unanimously.

The hopes that were entertained that his health might be regained by a respite from the labors of the Chair, proved groundless. His disease assumed a more violent form, and on the 25th of June he died at Fredericksburg, much lamented by his fellow citizens.